The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 1, 1892.

The Week.

THE correspondence between Secretary of State Foster and Mr. Herbert, the British Chargé d'Affaires, narrows itself to the single question whether the promise of the Canadian Government to abolish the discriminating rebates after the close of the present season ought to be taken as a sufficient concession on their part, and whether the President ought therefore to have withheld his proclamation regarding tolls on the Sault Ste. Marie Canal under the recent act of Congress. Mr. Foster shows that no option was left to the President by the act referred to. If he was satisfied that the discrimination existed, he was to issue the proclamation. He had discretion as to the amount of the toll to be levied at the Sault Canal, but not as to the levying of some amount. It would have been mere affectation for the President to say that he was not satisfied of the fact of discrimination when that fact had been admitted by the other side, and was sought to be defended on various grounds. Being convinced of the fact, he had nothing to do but to determine the amount of the tolls to be imposed on Canadian vessels or property passing through the Sault Canal, and in this he was certainly moderate. It would have been better, in our view, if Congress had made the act prospective in its operation. If it had provided for the imposition of tolls at the Sault after the close of the present season, probably all friction would have been avoided. As the matter is of small moment any way, it would have been worth the taking of some pains to avoid a difficulty.

Premier Abbott inherited this embarrassment from Premier Macdonald. That thrifty statesman found it necessary, in a certain political emergency, to conciliate the town of Kingston in order to get votes. He accomplished his end by making a discriminating rebate of canal tolls, the effect of which was to make Kingston a better transshipping point than Ogdensburg. The discrimination was in violation of the spirit of the treaty of Washington, if not of its letter. That treaty secures "to the citizens of the United States the use of the Welland, St. Lawrence, and other canals of the Dominion on terms of equality with the inhabitants of the Dominion." The refund of tolls to Canadians after the vessels have passed through is a violation of this provision, and the Canadian Government has acknowledged that it is such by promising to discontinue it at the end of the present season. Still, as a matter of comity, we should have preferred that our own Congress had taken a little more time or left a little more room for Premier Abbott to "crawl out."

President Harrison made a short speech at Malone on Friday. The greater part of it related to the restoration of our ocean-carrying commerce, which he believed was an event not far distant, and a consummation greatly to be desired. "I take great delight," he said, "in the contemplation of the fact, which, I believe, is now assured, that before another year has rolled around one of the swiftest and best of all the great lines of steamships that go out of the port of New York will bear the American flag at the fore." The President's naïve delight arises from the fact that Congress, in violation of the great principle of protection and of our wonderful navigation laws, has admitted two foreign-built steamships to American registry. Of course this might have been done before, in which case Mr. Harrison's heart might have been cheered years and years ago. In his remarks at Malone he had the grace to say that by the restoration of our ocean-carrying trade we should merely recover a position that we formerly held. "We have been deprived," he said, "of our once proud participation in the ocean carrying trade of the world. I think we should now resume it." The thing which has mainly prevented us from resuming it heretofore has been the prevalence of an opinion that a cheap coat makes a cheap man, and that a cheap ship makes a cheap country. The gradual disappearance of such crude notions will no doubt cause the United States "to step into the position of power and influence among the great commercial nations of the world" which Mr. Harrison now so fondly predicts.

There appears to be a commendable disposition at the State Department to go slow and be sure of the facts in the case of the six Venezuelans forcibly taken from an American merchant-ship in Puerto Cabello. Venezuelan affairs are in such a chaotic condition at present that it is difficult to say who was the representative of the legal authority over that harbor at the time; but it seems clear that the seizure was made by proper legal process under the *de-facto* authorities. If this proves to be the fact, the parallel between this affair and the Barrundia case will be close, and it will be interesting to note whether our Government is again prepared to assert its jurisdiction in foreign waters. The test question to put to Americans in such a dispute is the one asked by Prof. Woolsey in his recent article: "Suppose the *Trent*, with Mason and Slidell on board, had sailed into New York harbor, would the right of their seizure have been questioned by any power on earth?"

It was only a few days ago that the Washington correspondent of the Philadelphia *Ledger* was severely rebuked by the *Press* of the same city for telling the truth about the condition of the Treasury. He was reminded that it ill became a man who had been "honored" by the Republican party (meaning that he had been made Clerk of the Ways and Means Committee) to call attention to the fact that the Treasury was bankrupt, even if the fact were so. But he returned to the subject in Friday morning's *Ledger* undismayed, saying that his "facts and figures may not be relished by partisans, but it is due to the public that they should be fairly stated." He reaffirms the bankruptcy of the Treasury in the sense that "the appropriations made by Congress for several years have been in excess of receipts," and that Secretary Foster has been forced by lack of funds to "defer" "claims against the Government" and appropriations for "the construction of public works." This has been no secret, of course, in spite of Mr. Foster's perfunctory denials, but it is well to have the truth thus frankly set forth by a Republican authority who thinks it his first duty to be honest. He quotes Senator Allison as saying that "after this year we are likely to have a deficiency, which must be met by an increase of taxes." This seems a good place to recall a remark made by Senator Hale, when he was protesting, in the name of Mr. Blaine, against the removal of the sugar duties: "I do not, for one, Mr. President, envy the future of any party that takes off taxes this year and is obliged to reimpose them next year."

The reason assigned by Mr. Sweeney, the leader of the switchmen at Buffalo, for declaring the strike "off" was, that "we can't fight 8,000 militia and twelve powerful railroad corporations." This short sentence comprises the whole philosophy of the strike and of most strikes in this country. It implies that the strikers could carry their point if they were allowed to take possession of the property, burn cars, throw trains off the track, and kill or maim all persons seeking employment in the places they have abandoned. But if the officers of the law do their duty, if they afford that protection to life and property which it is the main object and purpose of Government to supply—which is nine parts of the functions of civilized society—then Mr. Sweeney and his troop of a few hundred men are compelled to acknowledge themselves beaten. When the outrages at Buffalo began, we were assured by Sweeney that they were

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the work of roughs and tramps who are always ready for a disturbance in every large city, and that the switchmen were models of good deportment. They were ready even to mount guard over the property of the companies and prevent the disorderly elements from doing any damage. But now it appears that the strike is off simply because too many men had mounted guard over the property and too much coercion had been applied to the disorderly elements. The protection was altogether too complete and thorough. It must be said for Mr. Sweeney that he was not solely to blame for what took place at Buffalo. The strike was ordered by the switchmen as a body, and not by the Grand Master on his own responsibility.

The failure of Hugh O'Donnell, leader of the Homestead strike, to draw a crowd to hear him in Cooper Institute last Thursday, is an encouraging indication. Only a handful of people attended, and O'Donnell got scarcely more than enough money to pay the rent of the hall. Various reasons are given for the slim attendance: the weather was very bad, and it was announced in advance that in addition to an admission fee of twenty-five cents a collection would be taken up at the close. Both these reasons may have been sufficient to keep many people away, but they would not have operated in that manner a few years ago. The real cause of the meeting's failure is undoubtedly the change of public sentiment which has taken place even among the workingmen themselves towards strikes and the leaders of them.

The excellent conduct of the militia at Buffalo is deservedly calling forth praise from all quarters. Their duty has been far from a pleasant one, but they have performed it without complaining and with really remarkable steadiness and self-control. The service was entirely novel to them, yet they have gone through it like veterans, rather than like green troops. Taken in connection with the equally commendable behavior of the militia at Homestead, the experience at Buffalo affords ample assurance that in its citizen soldiery society has a safe and sure protection against outbreaks of anarchy in any form.

The observations by Mr. T. V. Powderly upon the workingmen's expectation of benefits from the protective tariff, will furnish food for a good deal of solemn Republican thought. Mr. Powderly says that "our Government has enacted protective legislation in the interest of labor," and that, having done this, it "quiescently allows the manufacturer to absorb the bulk of protection." As authority for this view he points to Republican Congressional speeches, saying that "in discussion on the tariff laws it was never advanced as a reason why they should be passed that capital would be protected—the argument always was that labor should be protected." He declares that the Homestead troubles would have been averted if, when the managers of the Carnegie concern sought to absorb all the protection, Government had interfered in behalf of the workingmen. "If we must have protection," he adds, "let us see to it that it protects the man who works." Is Mr. Powderly right or wrong in his claim that he finds authority for his position in the speeches of Republican Congressmen? Everybody must admit that those speeches have for years been teaching the same doctrine which he insists upon now—namely, that the high tariff is designed primarily to keep American wages above the level of the pauper labor of Europe. In the current number of the *North American Review* Senator Morrill preaches the same doctrine when, in reviving the old "free-trade scare," he says: "Free trade builds up a few great important cities on the seashore, and creates millionaires in foreign trade. It depopulates the rural districts, and has nothing but lip-service to offer those who toil for their daily bread. *It would give to the latter the dearer cost of living and the 77 per cent. less of wages* which free trade in England offers to those who labor." The same doctrine has in every Presidential campaign for years been displayed on countless Republican banners in the familiar form: "American Protection for American Homes—American Wages for American Labor." Small wonder if Mr. Powderly and his associates, having accepted it as truthful, now turn about and demand its enforcement by its inventors.

The *American Wool and Cotton Reporter* has a sarcastic article entitled "The Political Arlington Mills." These are the woollen mills presided over by Mr. William Whitman. The *Reporter* finds it a matter for wonder that, if Mr. Whitman is able to make only 6 per cent. per annum out of his tariff combination with the Ohio wool-growers, he should continue in that combination. Other woollen manufacturers, who are not in the combination, make 10 per cent. dividends. How does it happen that Mr. Whitman makes less? The explanation is that Mr. Whitman's "participation in law-making has recently put more than 6 per cent. into the assets of those mills in such form as to be available as quick capital, if not practicable for immediate withdrawal as dividends." That there is something mysterious either in the company's financial statements or in Mr. Whitman's personal statements, the *Reporter* shows by publishing the financial statements for two successive years, namely, 1891 and 1892. Mr. Whitman has explained that the profit and loss balance in the 1892 statement (viz., $932,809) was an accumulation of former years; but the profit and loss balance of 1891 (viz., $984,769) was actually larger than that of 1892. This would show a decrease instead of an accumulation, but somehow the Arlington Mills stock rose in the market from 82½ to 108, and Mr. Whitman himself has been in the market as a buyer of it, having increased his own holdings from 514 shares in 1889 to 1,164 shares in 1891. The *Reporter* points out the true sources of the Arlington's prosperity. It says:

> "The facts are that the Arlington Mills were financially weak in 1889, and have become financially strong in 1892 *through the ability of Mr. Whitman to frame certain phrases of the McKinley Bill in the interest of his mills.* Mr. Whitman was able to do this by swallowing his previously announced convictions at the behest of Messrs. Lawrence and Delano, and by allying himself with the Ohio clique. He has achieved a considerable measure of prosperity thereby, but he might have achieved the same measure of prosperity by a tariff law which would have benefited the great mass of wool manufacturers as well as the Arlington Mills."

It is evidently worth while to be President of the American Wool Manufacturers' Association if by that means you have the last hack at the bills which are nominally prepared by the Committee of Ways and Means.

The importance which the Republican press attaches to Peck's report shows its desperate poverty in argument. The figures simply give the statements alleged to be made by 6,000 firms engaged in sixty-seven "industries," representing 1,121 "trades," as to the amount paid by them for wages in the year from September, 1889, to September, 1890, and in the following year, and the value of their products during those years. As to what has taken place during the year that ended yesterday, no information is given. Mr. Peck says that these industries "give employment to 285,000 workingmen and women," but his summary contains no figures upon this point, nor do we know to how many persons these industries gave employment during the former of the years taken for comparison. The figures show that $6,378,000 more was paid for wages in the second year than in the former, but as we do not know how many persons were employed in the former year, it is impossible to tell anything about average earnings. From what we know of the previous work of this "statistician," we incline to think that he has simply divided the increase reported in wages by the number of employees in the second year taken. If he has not done this, his figures ought to show that these "industries" are employing scarcely any more men in the second year than in the former. As to the increase in the value of products reported, it is impossible to judge of its significance, as we do not know the gross amount for either year or the quantity of goods to which this value is attributed by their anonymous producers. Meanwhile we must say that destiny has already marked Mr. Peck out as the Superintendent of the next census, should the Republican party be then in power.

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There appears to be no doubt that the Republican managers in Maine, led by "Joe" Manley, have been guilty of a disreputable piece of trickery in the printing of the ballots which are to be used in the approaching election. The new ballot law of the State is to be tried for the first time. It provides for a party-group ballot, in accordance with modifications of the Australian adopted in several of the States. The names of all candidates are to be arranged in party groups upon a blanket ballot, and the voter can indicate his choice either by placing a mark opposite the party name at the top, or by placing a mark against the name of each candidate for whom he wishes to vote. In all laws of this kind, except that of Maine, the blank spaces for the marks are placed *before* the names of the candidates—that is to say, to the left of them. In the Maine law, the direction is that the blank spaces shall be placed at the right of the names, that is, after them. In printing the ballots according to this direction, the Secretary of State in Maine has arranged them as follows:

REPUBLICAN.		DEMOCRAT.	

As the natural place for marking or checking a name is before, not after it, the effect of this arrangement would be that careless Democratic voters would put their marks in the space following the names on the Republican ballot, and their votes would thus be registered and counted as Republican. No other similar law in the country has such an arrangement. Some of the laws have the marks placed after the names, but the blank spaces are so arranged that a mistake is impossible. To understand how such a trick happened to be provided in the Maine law, it is necessary to recall the fact that the Republican Machine there, under Manley's lead, fought the adoption of the reform law in the Legislature, and yielded their opposition only in obedience to the demands of overwhelming public sentiment. Not content with this, the Secretary of State has had the ballots printed on such flimsy paper that the voter's mark on it can be seen easily through it, even after the ballot has been folded, so that the secrecy of the ballot is impaired, if not completely destroyed. The Democrats have discovered the marking trick in good season and are making every effort to warn their voters of the dangers of it; but they are likely to lose many votes in consequence of it.

There is a pretty loud demand in certain newspapers that the President shall issue a proclamation prohibiting immigration while the cholera continues in Europe. Those who make such a demand seem not to be aware that the President has no more power to prohibit immigration than he has to prohibit importation or exportation. Moreover, how is he to distinguish between immigrants and American citizens returning to their own homes as steerage passengers? Are people to be excluded from their own homes merely because they are not able to travel in the cabin? Nothing, we venture to say, will be gained by mixing the questions of immigration and of quarantine together. What is desired on all hands is to keep out cholera-infected persons, whether native or foreign-born, whether citizens or immigrants. How to do this is a medical question purely, and is to be decided by the faculty, and not by the President or any political authority. There is no occasion for getting in a panic on this subject. No person infected with the cholera germ can go five days without being sick in such a way as to disclose the true character of the disease. No ship can cross the ocean in five days. Therefore, no quarantine officer can be deceived. The outbreak has already had a deleterious effect on our export trade. One of the largest houses in the city in this line reports that it has not booked a new order in ten days. No shipowner wishes to send his vessel to an infected port. No captain or crew desires to tempt fate in that way. Hamburg is one of the world's great entrepots. It is the chief distributing point of northern Europe. Business is completely paralyzed there, and many of the merchants have fled from the city. Havre is likewise a great port, a most important one for our foreign trade. Antwerp is likewise of much importance to us. The reported presence of cholera in Antwerp is contradicted, but as long as a doubt exists no ship will solicit a cargo for that port, except the regular liners. Thus, a temporary glut of the markets in certain lines may be looked for here, and a corresponding dulness of general trade due to the caution which accompanies every disturbance of the settled course of things. Fortunately, the period of frost is not far distant.

The success of Mr. John Morley at Newcastle is one upon which the Liberals may congratulate themselves for several reasons. In the first place, he is Mr. Gladstone's right-hand man and chosen instrument in all home-rule matters, so that his defeat would have been taken to argue Liberal lukewarmness on the Irish question. Of course he would have had a seat made for him elsewhere if defeated, but that would have been a mortifying expedient. His triumph, and by a larger majority than was hoped for, cannot fail to strengthen and solidify the new Cabinet. Its determination to put Irish affairs first has now this new and cheering endorsement. Moreover, his election is a fresh dashing of Conservative hopes, as their unexpected success in winning one seat at Newcastle in the general election made them confident of beating Morley on Thursday.

The memorandum concerning the coinage of silver addressed by Dr. Soetbeer to the International Monetary Conference is subjected to rather destructive criticism by a correspondent of the London *Economist*. Dr. Soetbeer's principal suggestion was that no gold coins or bank-notes payable in gold under the value of twenty francs should be hereafter issued, and that those now outstanding should be withdrawn. He puts the amount of small gold coins at about £82,000,000, the total amount of such coins and of small notes being estimated by other authorities at £150,000,000. Dr. Soetbeer's critic points out that this is far below the quantity of full-rated silver already circulating, or more properly, we should say, held by Governments as available for monetary use. The United States and France alone have from £220,000,000 to £250,000,000, and the total in all countries is probably not less than £600,000,000. If the silver-using countries were to adopt the gold standard, using silver as suggested by Dr. Soetbeer, there would still be a vast surplus of silver. Dr. Soetbeer says these countries might be able to get rid of a portion of this surplus in time, but he does not say who is to take it.

M. Paul Leroy-Beaulieu has attacked vigorously the project for resuming work on the Panama Canal. He believes that all the new money put into it will be lost as the former amounts were. That France has any peculiar interest in cutting the isthmus, whereby patriotic feeling ought to be enlisted in its favor, he denies. On the contrary, he maintains that "the cutting of this isthmus will favor the United States at the expense of Europe as regards trade with the entire Pacific Coast and the waters of China and Australia." French prestige and *amour propre* are not concerned, he thinks, in the fact that a certain number of French citizens have undertaken a great enterprise and have failed in it. "No harm has resulted to the French name," he says, "and this check is no reason for pursuing indefinitely an enterprise singularly hazardous. It concerns only a matter of business purely financial, very risky, and which should be examined without getting excited." M. Leroy-Beaulieu evidently thinks that it is the weakness of the French character that it cannot look at Panama without getting excited, for he goes on to sketch a plan for getting the money if it must be done. In the first place, he dismisses the idea of a Government subsidy or guarantee as too idle to be considered. The work must be carried on by private subscription if at all. The smallest sum of new stock subscription that would serve as a basis for new loans would be $60,000,000 to $80,000,000 cash. Whether this amount can be raised as a speculation (as it might be invested in a lottery), he expresses no opinion.

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THE READING RAILROAD COMBINATION.

THE decision of Chancellor McGill of New Jersey, enjoining the operation of the Central Railroad by the Philadelphia and Reading, could hardly have been unexpected by the managers of these companies. The Chancellor examines the statute of 1885 prohibiting the leasing of domestic to foreign corporations without legislative sanction, which the companies failed to obtain, and declares it constitutional. It follows that the lease of the Central Railroad, a New Jersey corporation, to the Port Reading Company, was not only without legal sanction, but in direct defiance of the legislative prohibition. As we understand the decision, if these companies had secured the passage of an enabling act, the lease would have been valid, but Gov. Abbett's veto disappointed their expectations, as well as those of the legislators who voted for the bill on the understanding that he would approve it.

Such being the case, the consideration of the other features of the transaction does not seem to have been indispensable, but the Chancellor devotes much space to a review of the situation. He expresses the opinion that the Central Railroad has acted in a manner prejudicial to the interests of the public in order to make undue gains for its stockholders, and holds that, in such a case, the Attorney-General of the State may properly institute a suit in equity to restrain a corporation. The prejudicial action consists in leasing its lines to a corporation interested in a business that should be competitive, the transportation of coal. It is true, the Chancellor says, that neither of the railroads concerned owns any coal lands or deals in coal. But they own the majority of stock in two great coal companies, so that their allegations as to ownership of coal lands are "but disguise and evasion." "To say that these conditions do not tend to a disastrous monopoly in coal," Chancellor McGill declares, "would be an insult to intelligence." He adds:

> "The commodity in which these companies deal is a necessary of life in this State. It is the principal fuel of its homes and factories. The slightest increase in its price is felt by a population of hundreds of thousands of persons, for their necessity compels them to pay that increase. If once a complete monopoly be established by the destruction of competition, whether that be through lease or co-operation, the promoters and sharers in it may have whatever price their cupidity suggests. The disaster which will follow cannot be measured. It will permeate the entire community, furnaces, forges, factories, and homes, leaving in its trail murmurs of discontent with a government which tolerates it, and all the other evil effects of oppression."

It is obvious that in this portion of his opinion Chancellor McGill travels outside of the realm of law into that of economics. It is quite too hasty a conclusion that there may not be a saving of expense arising from the combination of competing agencies, although, of course, the saving of expense need not be made a gift to the public, either in whole or in part. And it is absurd to say that the promoters of the combination, if they could establish a complete monopoly, may obtain "whatever price their cupidity suggests." On the contrary, every rise in the price of anthracite coal tends to reduce consumption, and the point is very soon reached where the sale of the reduced quantity at the higher price brings in less profit than the sale of a greater quantity at a lower price. It is those who ignore this law that "insult intelligence." The history of the copper syndicate is an admirable illustration of its working. Those speculators controlled the world's production of copper, and they thought they had the world at their mercy. They put up the price to an extravagant figure, thinking they had made their fortunes, and they found themselves suddenly ruined. Some of those who used copper ceased to use it, some used other materials, some used old copper instead of new, all economized, and M. Secretan and his ring were hoist with their own petard.

Anthracite coal is not a commodity that will endure arbitrary fluctuations in price any more than copper. It is exposed to a steady and formidable competition from bituminous coal, to a considerable competition from wood, to a great possible competition from oil and gas. It is also, we rejoice to believe, in immediate danger of competition from the coals of Nova Scotia, which will be admitted free as soon as the Republicans are turned out of office. Every rise in its price makes this competition more effective. Every rise limits domestic consumption. People of small incomes do not waste so much coal when it is dear as when it is cheap, and people of small incomes are the great majority of consumers. Some of them will calculate that a wood fire will answer their purpose better than one of coal, some will decide to put in a gas-range or depend upon an oil-stove, and nearly all of them will pay only the same amount for coal that they paid before, because they can pay no more. The ability and the disposition of consumers are a perpetual check to the greed of monopolists.

After all, the controversy is a battle of abstractions. As Chancellor McGill admits, and as President McLeod defiantly asserts, what was intended to be done by a lease may as well be done by an understanding. The corporations are mere legal fictions. What is real is the body of men who own the coal and the railroads. These men have generally acted upon a tacit or secret understanding, and the fact that their understanding is now more perfect and extensive than before will make little difference. President McLeod says that the traffic arrangements between the Reading and the Central will not be changed, being mutually advantageous. The titles borne by certain officers will be changed, but not their functions. And, what is most important, the price of coal will not be changed, at least in consequence of this decree. As Mr. McLeod points out, the price for which that commodity sells is beyond the jurisdiction of a Court of Chancery, and he adds that it would be possible for the Reading Railroad to dispose of all its coal without entering the State of New Jersey. This is rather foolish talk, and Mr. McLeod's course is perhaps not altogether a wise one. The price of coal was probably abnormally low last year, but it has been advanced at so rapid a rate as to produce irritation.

PECK'S REPORT.

A REPORT was given to the press on Monday from C. F. Peck, the ridiculous person who holds the position of Chief of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of New York. It is entitled the "Effect of the Tariff on Labor and Wages," and it is hailed by the chief Republican organ as a great campaign document for that party. We do not think it will have the effect ascribed to it, because it is impossible for anybody of Peck's calibre to do any great amount of harm. It requires a man of considerable ability to handle statistics so that he will not contradict himself, or contradict higher authorities than himself. Peck became the laughing-stock of statisticians when he made his first report five or six years ago. Since that time he has scarcely been noticed, having fallen beneath contempt. His present publication is noticeable only as a studied attempt to help the Republican party over a difficult piece of road. Even here its only significance arises from the suspicion that it was put forth at this juncture at the instigation or with the connivance of Gov. Hill himself, who was in Albany on Saturday. The *World's* Albany correspondent says: "Yesterday Senator Hill and Chairman Murphy of the State Committee held a conference here, and last night the order was given to release the report for Monday, August 29." We profess to have no knowledge on this delicate subject. We merely say that the report itself will be harmless; but if it is an indication of what Gov. Hill and his crowd are about, then it behooves the National Democratic Committee to take the campaign in this State into their own hands exclusively, and without the least delay.

The reason why Peck will not produce the harm to his own party which he evidently intended is that he has tremendously overdone his job. He has contradicted Senator Aldrich, the chief Republican wage statistician, to such a degree that if we were to take both of them as true, we should be driven to the conclusion that the McKinley tariff was devised to benefit New York at the expense of all the rest of the country. Mr. Aldrich showed, or attempted to show, that there had been an average increase of wages since the passage of the McKinley Bill of *three fourths of one per cent.* That was the extent of his claim, founded upon the investigations of the Senate Committee, which had taken

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a vast deal of sworn testimony, the witnesses all being subjected to cross-examination. Senator Carlisle, in his reply to Aldrich, showed that the only increase of wages had taken place in the non-protected industries, while there had been a decrease in the protected industries. What Peck meant to say the percentage of increase of wages in this State had been during the same period, cannot be made out of his jumbled statement. We print it, however, in parallel columns with Aldrich's:

PECK'S REPORT.

"Of the sixty-eight industries included, 75 per cent. of them show an increased average yearly earning in the year 1891, while the total average increase of yearly earnings of the 285,000 employees was $23.11 each. The average increase of yearly earnings of the employees in fifty-one trades showing an increase was $43.96 each in 1891 as compared with 1890."

ALDRICH'S SPEECH IN SENATE, JULY 26.

The investigation by the Senate Finance Committee into wages from June, 1889, to September, 1891, showed an average increase for the occupations included in the inquiry of three-fourths of one per cent." — *Congressional Record, page* 7,530.

To complete the record, we add what Senator Carlisle said in reply to Mr. Aldrich:

"The Senator from Rhode Island stated generally, as will be seen from his printed speech, that the Committee had found that, while there had been a decline in prices, there had been an increase of seventy-five hundredths of one per cent. in wages, whereas I assert now, with the tables before me, that the only instance in which any increase of wages occurred, taking the whole together, was in these fifteen substantially unprotected industries; and I will show presently that in the fifteen highly protected industries in which the rate of wages had increased before the McKinley Bill passed, *there was a decrease after it passed.*"

Peck's jumble is evidently intended to have a resounding noise and to affect the imaginations of those who take the general purport of words without weighing them or examining their basis. It is worth recalling that Mr. Powderly, the head of the largest labor organization in the country, in a recently published article, differs radically from Peck as to the effect of the tariff on wages.

Let us now glance at the sources of Peck's information. He sends out a lot of blanks to the protected manufacturers, asking them certain questions about wages. Of course they all see the point and frame the answers to suit themselves. There is no cross-examination, indeed there is no examination in chief, but merely an exchange of letters by mail. The answers are not sworn to, and, even if they were, no prosecution for perjury could be had since the parties are not giving any evidence which the law requires from them. Moreover, Peck himself tells us that the evidence is altogether of a private nature, that it has been given in confidence, and that he cannot submit it to the test of verification or rebuttal. Here is his colloquy with the *Herald* correspondent:

"'Are the original letters on file in your office?' I asked.

"'They are, every one of them,' was the reply, 'but they cannot be thrown open to the public. They are in many cases confidential letters from business men who would only agree to furnish me statistics on the assurance that the private facts concerning their business should not be made public.'"

If Mr. Carroll D. Wright, or Prof. Richmond Smith, or Gen. Francis Walker, or any other statistician of recognized character and ability should publish a mass of statistics having a decided political cast, no other statistician would feel bound to accept them as conclusive without testing their accuracy; and if the means of testing it were denied, they would simply say that they must be judged wholly by our knowledge of the person collecting and preparing them. If we apply this reasoning to Peck, the whole mass goes to the garbage heap at once, along with his other reports, except that probably this one will go a little faster than the others on account of its political character. It was evidently put out at this time to damage Mr. Cleveland and to prevent a Democratic victory in the nation. If this had not been the object, it would have been withheld until after the election. Any merely scientific aim that had been evolved in the brain of Peck would have been as easily secured two months hence as now. But the political aim could only be accomplished now.

It might be pointed out that if Peck's statistics were to be taken as correct, instead of Aldrich's or Carlisle's, it would still be incumbent on him or on somebody to show the connection between the tariff and wages. If this task were successfully achieved, the fact would remain that an artificial increase of wages in some employments must be gained at the expense of other people in other employments. But it will be time enough to go into these branches of the inquiry when some evidence is advanced to sustain the statistics.

FARMING IN MAINE.

A RECENT census bulletin gives the results of the investigation into the ownership of the farms and homes of Maine and into the encumbrances upon them. This inquiry was entirely distinct from that into the recorded indebtedness of the country. Each of the family schedules furnished the enumerators contained the following questions:

"Is the home you live in hired, or is it owned by the head or by a member of the family? If owned by head or member of family, is the home free from mortgage encumbrance? If the head of the family is a farmer, is the farm which he cultivates hired, or is it owned by him or by a member of his family? If owned by head or member of family, is the farm free from mortgage encumbrance? If the home or farm is owned by head or member of family, and mortgaged, give the post-office address of owner."

From the answers to these questions, it is possible to determine how many families cultivated farms and how many did not, the number of families who owned the farms they cultivated or the houses they occupied, the number of those owning the farms they cultivated or the houses in which they lived free from encumbrance, and the number of those upon whose farms or houses there were mortgages. Whenever the answer showed that the farm or home was mortgaged, the Census Office has sought to obtain by direct correspondence with the head of each family the value of the farm or house, the amount of encumbrance upon it, the interest paid on such encumbrance, and the object for which the indebtedness was contracted.

Maine is the first complete State for which the results have been published, although in response to an inquiry of Senator Peffer of Kansas the Census Office some months ago compiled the returns from some ten Kansas and an equal number of Ohio counties. A farm in the meaning of the census returns includes, besides what are commonly known as farms, all considerable nurseries, orchards, and market gardens cultivated for pecuniary profit, and employing as much as the labor of one able-bodied workman during the year. Cabbage and potato-patches, family vegetable-gardens, and ornamental lawns, not constituting a portion of a farm for general agricultural purposes, are excluded. No tract of less than three acres was reported as a farm unless at least $500 worth of produce had been sold from it during the census year.

Out of the 150,355 families residing in Maine on June 1, 1890, 62,122 are returned as cultivating farms as above defined. It must be borne in mind that the families of hired farm laborers who do not own or rent farms are not included in the number of those cultivating farms, while many families some of whose resident members may have other than agricultural pursuits are included, so that the proportion which these families bear to the total number of families in the State is not necessarily the same borne by what are commonly termed the agricultural classes to the total population.

The returns show that in Maine more than 92 per cent. of the families who cultivate farms own them, and nearly 72 per cent. own them free of encumbrance. If the selected counties in Kansas and Ohio, the returns for which have been published, are fair samples of the rest of their respective States, the proportion of tenant farmers is less than one-fourth as great in Maine as it is in either of the other States, as 33 per cent. of the Kansas and 37 per cent. of the Ohio farmers rent their farms. In the proportion of mortgaged farms Maine, while very much better off than Kansas, in which 43 per cent. of the farmers have mortgages on their land, is not quite so well off as Ohio, in which State the places of but 13 per cent. of the farm-cultivating families are mortgaged.

In Maine the average value of the mortgaged farms occupied by their owners was, according to their owners' estimate, only $1,449, while the mortgages upon them averaged $532, or about 37 per cent. It is noticeable that in all three States the ratio

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of encumbrance to gross value of encumbered property is substantially the same, varying in the different States less than 2 per cent. The average mortgaged farm in Kansas or Ohio, however, was worth, according to its owner's statement, more than twice as much as in Maine, the Ohio average being $3,848, and the Kansas $3,694. The mortgages were also proportionately larger, averaging $1,422 in the former State and $1,402 in the latter. The Maine farmer pays less for the money he borrows, the rate of interest on his mortgages averaging 6.26 per cent., including in the interest all bonuses and commissions he had to pay for the loan, while the average rate in Ohio is 6.85 per cent., and in Kansas as much as 8.12 per cent.

More than 64.79 per cent. of the mortgage debt of the Maine farmers was incurred for the purchase of real estate and for that alone, and 75.12 per cent. for the purchase and improvement of real estate. In Ohio the percentage of debt incurred for the objects named is 74.75, or almost precisely the same as in Maine. In Kansas, however, only 53.79 per cent. of the debt was incurred for the purchase and improvement of real estate uncombined with other objects. In all three States a much larger percentage of the farmers than of the other classes of the population own their homes. Thus in Maine only 48.02 per cent. of the families not occupying farms own their homes, as against 92 38 per cent. of those occupying farms; in Ohio the respective percentages are 30.36 and 62 90, and in Kansas 51 69 and 66.75. Home ownership is least common in the larger cities; thus, in Hamilton County, Ohio, which includes the city of Cincinnati, only 21.95 per cent. of the families live in their own houses, as against 50.24 per cent. in the other nine counties the returns for which have been compiled. In Maine, in the eight cities having 8,000 inhabitants each, 36.23 per cent. of the families own their homes, while in the rest of the State the percentage is 53.11. In Maine the mortgaged homes of families not cultivating farms have a higher average value than the mortgaged farms, while the contrary is true in Ohio and Kansas. In Maine and Ohio about the same proportion of homes and farms occupied by their owners are mortgaged, while in Kansas a much larger proportion of owned homes than of farms are free from encumbrance.

REFORM OF ENGLISH LEGAL PROCEDURE.

It is not without surprise that Americans read that the entire body of English judges have agreed upon a report which exposes numerous defects in the present system of administering justice, and recommends a scheme for its improvement. We have so long been accustomed to speak of British conservatism that it is hard to realize how much more rapid the rate of change has been in the mother country in recent years, not only in political institutions, but also in the substance and the practice of the law. In certain respects we were already so far in advance that we may still look back upon the progress of English reform, but in others it cannot be denied that we have been distanced. The very fact that no body of American judges reports upon the methods of administering justice, or effects any material change in these methods, is an indication of itself that our system is defective. Judges are especially qualified by their experience to suggest improvements in legal procedure, and under an enlightened system of jurisprudence this would be one of their regular functions. The English judges seem to be able not only to suggest changes, but to a considerable extent to initiate them without legislative assistance.

Most of the reforms proposed by the English judges are of purely technical interest, but there are a number of general importance, some of which deserve imitation in this country. Some twenty years since, the Judicature Acts were passed in England, under which changes were made similar in a general way to those effected more than forty years ago in the State of New York. The old distinctions between law and equity were to be abolished, the old forms of common-law pleading were to be done away with, and practice was to be so simplified as to enable every man to be his own lawyer. What the result has been in New York is well known and need not be dwelt upon. It is enough to say that the very evils that took place here in consequence of the adoption of our code have taken place in England in consequence of the Judicature Acts. The old forms of pleading had a quaint, not to say repulsive, aspect, but they had resulted, after centuries of use, in making pleading a science. What it has become under a system which encourages the pleader, as Mr. O'Conor said, "to tell his story just as one old woman would to another," every one knows who has had to answer a rambling, illogical, and unintelligible complaint according to its folly. So far as simplifying pleading goes, the criticism of an English judge is applicable to both countries:

> "The reformers of the Judicature Acts found no difficulty in charming the public with the idea that it would be an excellent improvement to substitute a less rigid and less formal method, under which a simple man—so ran the thought—might tell his own unvarnished tale without any of the artifice and verbiage of the lawyer. Experience, unfortunately, soon showed that the artists who draw the narratives of litigants are not often simple; and it may be added that their tales are frequently not unvarnished. The ancient severity of the common-law pleading was replaced by lengthy statements on behalf of plaintiff and of defendant, from which the points could only be extracted by painful and (generally speaking) useless industry. Expense was doubled and simplicity was not promoted."

But whatever claim is made in favor of the modern system, or lack of system, of pleading, no one can deny that the introduction of the Code in New York was followed by a prodigious increase in the number of steps in a litigation. Under the old system the rules of practice were known to the bar and the bench, but when the Code came, both had to learn their business over again, and take up their time with inquiries as to whether the practice prescribed in the Code was the same as before or different. However it be explained, we have the fact to deal with that there has been an enormous multiplication of interlocutory applications and appeals in this State, and that is precisely what has taken place in England since the Judicature Acts. By rendering the machinery of Chancery applicable to actions at law, these acts made available to litigants generally such weapons as interrogatories and bills of discovery, to the great increase of trouble, delay, and expense. On the Chancery side there has been some improvement, but the last state of the common-law litigant is worse than the first.

These evils are dealt with in a drastic manner by the judges. It is proposed that within a fortnight of the beginning of an action a "summons for directions" shall be taken out, under which the parties shall appear before a master, who will investigate the cause of action. He is to be empowered to settle the preliminaries of the trial, to direct as to its mode and place, to put a cause into a special list for immediate trial, to allow and disallow pleadings, to prescribe the kinds of evidence for particular points and the manner in which it shall be obtained and presented, and in general to give such directions as to procedure as will prevent delay. It is believed that in this way the evil of incessant summonses, which correspond with our notices of motion, will be checked. The end is desirable enough, for at present the order of the master is taken on appeal to the judge, and from him appeal lies to the Divisional Court, thence to the Court of Appeal, and finally even to the House of Lords. The manner of dealing with this question of appeals we need not enter into further than to say that the time for interlocutory appeals is shortened to eight or fourteen instead of twenty-one days, and appeals from final judgments must be taken within two months instead of a year. This reform might well be imitated in this country.

Other improvements proposed by the judges are: special calendars for commercial cases and special judges for work of this kind, changes in the method of administering estates, and other matters to which we cannot refer. Two subjects, however, are of so much importance as to deserve notice. At present, civil causes are tried at fifty-six circuit towns twice a year. But during the last four years there have been no causes for trial at one of these towns, only one case a year at a number, and at forty of them the number of cases is insignificant. By reducing the number of assize towns to eighteen, such an economy in the time of the judges will be effected as will enable

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at least eight judges to be always present in London.

A more interesting reform, which is not without its lessons for us, is the proposed formation of a court of appeal in criminal cases. At present the Home Secretary practically acts as such a court, but appeals are pressed upon him by all sorts of influences, and his position is an odious one. The proposed court is to be empowered to increase or to diminish punishment. Apparently the court is to be competent to quash convictions, but no new trial is to be granted. While the administration of the English criminal law differs so radically from our own as to make any analogy imperfect, there seems to be no reason why we should not follow suit in instituting a court of criminal appeal. We have never been able to understand why, with all the complaint of the excessive burdens thrown upon our Court of Appeals, there has never been any movement to relieve it of the review of criminal trials. It would be a perfectly simple and satisfactory arrangement to constitute a court out of a certain number of Supreme Court justices which should meet whenever there were appeals to be heard. In this way a very considerable relief would be afforded to the Court of Appeals, while the public would gain by the prompt application of justice in criminal cases. The present delay between sentence and execution in murder cases does much to diminish the exemplary effect of the death penalty.

THE QUESTION OF THE COLONIES.

PARIS, August 17, 1892.

THE question of the colonies is the order of the day. The events in Dahomey take up considerable space in the daily newspapers. Before its adjournment three weeks ago, the Chamber discussed two interpellations in reference to the colonies, one of which resulted in the fall of the Minister of the Marine, M. Cavaignac. This retirement, as, indeed, the discussion that took place upon the interpellations, is in certain respects very significant.

The work of the Third Republic, so far as concerns the colonies, has been in some points of view of considerable importance. Algeria and Cochin-China have been respectively enlarged by the addition of Tunis and Tonkin; and when, during these last few years, the various European Powers set about parcelling out to themselves the African Continent, France assured herself a considerable share, inasmuch as she placed Madagascar under her protectorate, and extended greatly the limits of the territories she had already acquired there, to wit, Senegal and Gaboon and sundry factories on the coast of Guinea. The Government of the Republic found itself in many respects in a favorable position to extend its possessions beyond the seas. The colonial enterprises of a country are always in a very large measure subordinate to its relations with other Powers. The desire of intervening in European questions naturally prevents the employment of large forces in far-off regions; and the necessity of conciliating the susceptibilities of allies who are also colonizing Powers may exercise a certain influence in preventing the annexation of one or another territory. Thus, for instance, the whole history of French colonization during the present century is subordinated to the state of its relations at any given date with its sister Power, England. That country, jealous of any rival to its maritime and commercial supremacy, looks with unfavorable eye upon the different posts established beyond the seas by any other nation than itself. The Government of the Restoration undertook to add new colonies to those that the treaties of 1814 had left to it. It directed important enterprises in Madagascar and set itself the task of conquering Algeria. The Revolution of 1830 came to put a sudden stop to its attempts. As a matter of fact, the Government of Louis Philippe, from the very beginning of that king's reign, saw itself obliged to rely for support on Great Britain. While on the one hand the Restoration, entering into friendly relations with Russia, had been able to disregard English protests, on the other hand Louis Philippe was obliged to take account of them. Madagascar ceased completely to occupy the Ministerial mind, and for many years the question could be reasonably asked, "Is Algeria going to be evacuated?"

During the period of understanding with England which lasted all through the reign of Louis Philippe and through a part of the reign of Napoleon III., the French Government was able to create a few colonial establishments. This was due to causes of a special nature. For example, when treaties had been signed, at the instigation of England, by which France undertook to help in the repression of the slave trade, and consequently to maintain cruisers on the coasts of Africa, it was necessary for the ships to have certain calling-stations assured to them, and, to this end, to occupy a number of strategic positions. In this way the establishments at Gaboon were created, and the various factories on the Guinea Coast (1835-1845). Reasons of another order brought about the conquest of Cochin-China in 1862.

After the disastrous war of 1870, France, renouncing for the time being all interference in European affairs, was on that account the more easily able to direct a part of her activity towards her possessions beyond the seas. Her work here was also the more facilitated inasmuch as circumstances peculiar to the time allowed her to occupy fresh territory without thereby provoking any conflict with other Continental Powers. Not that England was disposed to regard such attempts with any more favorable eye; but besides that France had no longer any special reason to conciliate the susceptibilities of England—as was the case in the time of Louis Philippe and of Napoleon III.—she was no longer to struggle alone against the ill-will of her neighbor. Germany first, and afterwards Italy, desired also to have colonies of their own; and England, having opposed to her not simply France, but also a number of Powers which in these matters were often united by community of interest, showed herself very much more accommodating than in the past.

The achievement of the work that the French Government had planned out was yet further helped by the excellent materials which it had at its disposal. Explorers such as M. de Brazza, Capt. Binger, Lieut. Mizon—the last of whom returned to France only a short time ago—succeeded, in spite of the small and oftentimes utterly inadequate resources they possessed, in holding their own against the powerful colonizing companies belonging to England and the Congo State. They succeeded, almost without escort and almost without striking a blow, in opening up roads of communication and in establishing French influence over large tracts of territory. So far as this kind of work is concerned, we have managed to do as well as any other nation.

The success, however, is by no means so brilliant wherever it has been necessary to organize the possessions we have gained, or when an armed struggle has had to be undertaken against the natives. French administration, costly and complicated in its working does not know how to adapt itself to circumstances, and would fain introduce its habits of routine into colonial government. In particular, the civil and the military element do not get on well together. Dissensions break out between the Minister for War and the Minister of the Marine. The coöperation of these two departments is a prime necessity to the carrying out of even the smallest operation, and yet each administration often keeps exclusive direction of the men under its orders. Each Minister, fearing more than aught else to compromise his responsibility, gives the minutest instructions to his subordinates, and as the result we see captains in the navy obliged to refuse help to their brother officers in the army, even when this help is urgently demanded. It must, however, be recognized that if such things happen—which all must regret—the fault is not to be exclusively attributed to the executive power. For a long time the Government had to contend, almost unceasingly, against a very violent Parliamentary opposition. Monarchists and Radicals, ever seeking opportunities to overthrow the successive cabinets, used to reproach the Government with weakening France by scattering her effective forces all over the globe; and whenever a difficulty arose, or a demand for money was made, the necessity of evacuating the new colonies without delay was preached with never-varying refrain.

If this systematic and relentless opposition was never strong enough to cause the Government to make a complete change in its policy, it nevertheless contributed a great deal to paralyze it and to prevent it from acting with the energy it ought. Harassed without ceasing, never knowing what the morrow might bring forth, and never definitely assured of the support of Parliament, the Government tried often to carry out a colonial policy while seeming to be doing nothing. Instead of preparing with care the necessary means of action, and of quietly pursuing the realization of a largely conceived plan, it nearly always sought to dissimulate the importance of the enterprise that it meditated, as also of the obstacles that it would have to overcome. The credits first asked for were always insufficient to assure an energetic action, and from the fact of these enterprises not being conceived as they ought, the resources actually furnished, inadequate in themselves, were often squandered by reason of the bad management referred to above.

It would, however, seem that the respective positions of the Government and Parliament in reference to colonial matters have at least undergone a certain modification, and the recent Parliamentary incidents of which I spoke at the beginning indicate that the Chamber is now showing on such questions a more just appreciation of events. A foraging company having fallen into an ambush in Tonkin, an interpellation was made in the Chamber, and the discussion that followed revealed the deputies in a new light—viz., as frankly realizing that such incidents are inevitable in a newly conquered country, for nobody spoke of evacuation. Still more, it would appear now

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that Parliament sees into colonial policy more clearly even than the Government itself, and, far from hampering its efforts, points out to it the course to pursue. In the campaign that is about to be opened against the King of Dahomey, the Minister of the Marine, M. Cavaignac, wished to maintain the deplorable traditions of the past and keep the command of the sea forces absolutely independent of that of the land forces. Rendered wise by experience, the Chamber invited the Government to unite in one authority the command of all the expeditionary forces. The vote embodying this desire caused the resignation of the Minister in question, but it is impossible not to recognize that this time it is the Chamber which was right.

Another proposition, also voted in the last days of the session, is still more significant. Bearing the signatures of MM. le Baron Reille, Lockroy, and Reinach—that is to say, of a Conservative, a Radical, and a Moderate Republican—it seemed to make plain that the Opposition is disarming on matters distinctively colonial, and that soon these questions, like those of national defence, will be placed above the quarrels of party. As for the tenor of the proposition, it simply invited the Government to push on with the formation of the colonial army. Yet such a vote as this is already a great progress. Indeed, to leave aside technical considerations into which it would be too long to enter here, the formation of a colonial army, the principle of which was voted so long ago as last year—that is to say, the creation of regiments made up of special elements and charged exclusively with the defence of the various colonies, instead of the troops sent at the present time from France—would isolate the colonies more from the metropolis, at least in certain respects, and would thus be a first step in the direction of a real colonial organization. Moreover, it would show that France has a firm intention of entering more and more upon a steady policy of colonization, and this is why it is interesting to remark that it is now the Chamber itself that is urging the Government to form this army.

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AN EXTRA-TERRITORIAL ITALIAN CITY.

Trieste, August 1, 1892.

We left Venice as the splendid marine band, playing in the Piazza San Marco under the windows of the popular Rear-Admiral, Prince Thomas of Savoy, struck up a warlike march. Sheet lightning illuminated the Piazzetta, extinguishing at intervals the electric lights there and on the deck of the Lloyd steamer *Maximilian*, on which we had taken tickets for the yonder shore of the Adriatic Sea.

Venice may celebrate her silver wedding, for just five-and-twenty years ago she gave herself a glad, enthusiastic bride to one Italy, as yet uncrowned in Rome. A quarter of a century has passed, yet the memory of those days is still fresh. To the Venetians it seemed as though the Austrians would never take themselves off. "I vai? I vai?" (Are they going? are they going?) was the eager interrogation every morning until the glad day when the last white uniform vanished and the population, with one great sigh of relief, shouted, "I ze andai!" (They are gone). For the rest of Italy, though gladdened by the liberation of Venice, the outlook was gloomy. The catastrophe of Custozza, the shame of Lissa, saddened the hearts of all. The "useless Alps," as Carlo Cattaneo called them, were and (alas) still are in the hands of the foreigner—France encamped on the heights of Mont Cenis; Austria, a stone's throw from Verona, Bassano, and Udine. That the Tyrol will gravitate to the mother country sooner or later no one doubts, but it must be in virtue of some extraordinary pressure that Austria will cede Trieste, her one great port on the Adriatic, the port till yesterday the most flourishing of all the ports on the Adriatic or Mediterranean shores.

Reared and fostered by Austria at the expense of Venice, which never for an hour or an instant concealed its hatred and contempt for Austrian rule, Trieste in 1848-'9 gave no sign of her relationship to the rest of Italy. On the contrary, when, the war between the Milanese, the Venetians, and their ally, Carlo Alberto, against the Austrians being at its height, the Sardinian fleet, commanded by Admiral Albini, with the Neapolitan and Venetian squadrons, entered the Adriatic, forced the Austrian fleet to take refuge at Pola, and on the 23d of May arrived in the Gulf of Trieste, the soldiers of the garrison, the civic guard, and the militia took up position along the shore ready to repulse "the invaders" if they should attempt a landing. The cannon on the forts were ready, the treasure was carried into the castle. The consuls of the various nations protested that Trieste was a commercial city in which all nations were interested; that any offence against Trieste would be considered an offence against all nations represented by the resident consuls. Two days passed, then the ships weighed anchor and left the Adriatic, the Admiral being recalled by a despatch from Turin, as Germany had protested against "the eventual occupation of Trieste." The Emperor Ferdinand, when the catastrophe of Novara decided the fate of Lombardy, and when famine and cholera, more than the incessant bombardment, had compelled Venice to hoist the white flag, handed over these rebellious provinces to the tender mercies of Radetzky; but "Trieste the loyal," "Trieste the faithful," was rewarded with a lavish hand. In 1849 a special and separate constitution was granted to Trieste, which *statuto* the Triestines still look upon as their greatest treasure. "To the city of Trieste, city of the Empire, is guaranteed her absolute autonomy within the limits fixed by the Constitution of the Empire. The colors and the coat of arms of the city of Trieste are reserved intact." To this city of the Empire "is guaranteed the right of sending two deputies to the first chamber of Parliament. The elections of the representatives of the city of Trieste in the second chamber will be regulated by the law of the Empire." The number of the municipal councillors was increased from forty to fifty-six, the city detached from the Litorale and constituted into a separate province with the territory which extends from Rosanda in the valley of Zaule to the village of Santa Croce in Carsia. But all these new and important privileges were nothing in comparison with *the* privilege of *porto franco* granted by Charles VI., by which the city was exempted from custom-house dues outside the walls; ships laden with merchandise could enter and quit the port, transfer their freight from one to the other, deposit their imports and exports in the warehouses on the Quay of San Carlo or in private stores, without paying duty or tax. And this privilege was maintained until 1888, when, some say to second the doctrines of the Austrian economists, others to punish the city for its late liberal manifestations, it was abolished, and grievous are the lamentations of the citizens.

Not that it would be just to attribute to this material fact the deep and ever-widening increase of Italian feeling among the Triestines. The sentiment of their Italian origin, the prompt reply to the "What is the city's fatherland?" has always existed more or less; but until Rome was freed from the French and the temporal power of the Pope abolished, the unity of Italy was not credited, and the annexation of Trieste to the "kingdom of upper Italy" was never regarded as a desideratum. But since 1870 the feelings of the Triestines towards Italy and of the Italians towards Trieste have become more intense and of more daring manifestation. True, "unredeemed Italy" has been the watchword for factious demagogues who seek only to embarrass every government, and who have no intention to risk their necks in attempting the redemption; but here, as there, a strong and deepening conviction has spread that without Trieste and Trent, without the Alps and the Adriatic, Italy will never be strong or safe from invaders. This conviction it is which has brought many thorough haters of Austria to tolerate and even favor the Triple Alliance, believing that, in the case of any war with foreign Powers, Italy's assistance or even her neutrality will lead to the peaceful cession of "one at a time" or even of both of the provinces.

These speculations were rife among the many voyagers from Venice to Trieste, between which cities constant intercourse is maintained. On board there were a number of *mandolisti*, young Venetians of good families who have formed a club, and who, with their mandolins, were going to give a gratuitous concert at the bathing station of Bagnolo. A heavy storm, accompanied by thunder and lightning, stopped their performances on deck, but below they made night weary with their scrapings and squeakings, which just now are all the fashion, so that it was a relief when dawn broke and we were able to distinguish in the distance the Gulf of Trieste on the eastern shore of the extreme Adriatic, with the mountains of Catinara and Opcina (the mountains of the Vena, as they are called), to the left, and the Julian Alps towering behind at some distance, while hamlets and villages strew the shore to the right and left of the city. The horns of the Gulf extend, as though offering a welcome, from the station and St. Andrea. The city has an imposing aspect, and, with its villas nested among the verdant slopes and its rugged mounts, bare, stony and barren, reminds you of Genoa; and of Genoa it has all the life and activity—the joyous sounds of hammer and anvil, the flags of all nations, and the business aspect at every turn, so wanting in faint and feckless Venice. The Lloyd steamers lie at the Quay of San Carlo, so there is no need for boats or gondolas; the porters are decent and evidently in well-kept order; you deposit your few traps at the nearest hotel, and away in a tram for "anywhere it goes to."

The first "anywhere" was Barcola, now a flourishing bathing station, bright, gay, and clean as a Dutchman's house. Everywhere the cleanliness of the streets, the public buildings, and especially of the charitable institutions, strikes one. At Barcola, an old Roman colony, the explorations for Roman remains have been carried on successfully. In the civic museum of antiquities an entire room is paved and walled with splendid and perfect mosaics. The remains of a vast thermal edifice with the plan intact have been discovered, and the municipality votes annually the necessary sums for the continuation of the works.

The Triestines, in familiar conversation, use

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the dialect, and the *zezete* of the soft Venetian tongue prevails; but the language written and taught in the schools is pure Italian, and the burning question is the maintenance of the Italian language, for which Austria has vainly attempted to substitute the German. But the commune builds its own school-houses and pays for the education of the poor; on its shoulders fall all the expenses for higher education, and the number of educational establishments is remarkable. Until the grant of the *porto franco*, the German language was unknown. When the Emperor Frederic III. wrote for the first time to the city in German, a translator had to be found, and the Government opened an office, *Translatador delle lettere tedesche*. In 1524 the Council sent commissaries to Ferdinand I. to implore that the judges who adjusted the questions between Carniola and Trieste should use the Latin language, saying, "The mother tongue of the Triestines is Italian. No one born in Trieste understands the German language." After the introduction of the free port, and especially towards the close of the last century, the number of Germans, the employees and the military—German all—did their utmost to change the language, and Joseph II. decreed in 1786 that within three years the use of the Italian language in Government offices should be abolished. Next it was to be introduced into the schools, so that the people from their infancy should be familiarized with the German tongue. But all these efforts failed; the "old city" held its own. In the tribunals, in the Chamber of Commerce, in the municipality, Italian only is spoken. German, French, English, and Greek are taught, but the attempt to substitute German has failed utterly, and in 1868 the Emperor decreed that "all the nations forming the Empire have equal rights, and that every single nation possesses the inviolable right to preserve and to cultivate its own nationality and its proper idiom."

This right, however, has to be paid for. The municipality alone spends 600,000 florins (about $300,000) for public instruction, half of this for the popular elementary schools. There are infant schools in every district, and these are really child-gardens, all the children receiving a good meal a day. The gymnasia, lyceums, and superior schools are excellent. The female lyceum has eight classes and is thronged with students. The libraries, museums, and other institutions are many and good, and the sum spent by the municipality does not represent the actual outlay. The gymnasia and realschulen are subsidized by the State; their chief purpose being to prepare students for the universities and technical high schools. It is a standing grievance that Trieste has no university, while in Austria-Hungary there are eleven. Before the annexation of Venetian Lombardy to Italy, the Triestines frequented the universities of Padua and Bologna; now, in order to obtain diplomas for the exercise of their respective professions, they are virtually compelled to attend one of the Austrian universities. Neither does Trieste possess a technical high school, of which there are seven in Austria for various branches of engineering and technical chemistry. Many schools in Trieste are endowed or subsidized by private contribution. The Jews and Slovenes maintain schools of their own. The latter is the troublesome element, detesting the Italian supremacy, and the priests from their pulpits enjoin on the parents to abstain from sending their children to the schools. In Austria, though there is no poor-law entitling all to shelter, food, and clothing, the right to poor relief is defined by an imperial statute; but the regulations for the apportionment of the cost are varied, and made by the separate provinces. In Trieste the charitable institutions are many and well regulated. The municipality spends now some 700,000, as the abolition of the free port has thrown hundreds of families out of employment. The civic hospital is a magnificent building, containing 2,000 beds; the wards are bright and airy, and the wooden floors are white and clean as the deck of a man-of-war. A maternity ward has been opened lately, and the women are received without question and assisted on leaving to suckle and maintain their babes. There is no real foundling hospital, but waifs and strays are put out to nurse when found destitute. Infanticide, nevertheless, is a crime almost unknown; the "unfortunate" mothers in need being assisted at home.

There is a general direction of public beneficence, and its arrangements are worthy of study and imitation. Starting with the "poor fund," augmented by private subscriptions and the grant by the Government of 5 per cent. on the wine duty, the General Institute for the Poor was set on foot, and in 1862 the Pia Casa for the poor was erected, capable of housing 800 individuals. Old men and women unable to work are received, fed and clothed; orphans and poor children are also admitted, instructed and taught a trade, and kept, the boys until sixteen, when they always find employment, and the girls until a situation is provided. Here again the perfect cleanliness delighted one, the peaceful harmony prevailing, the smile of welcome that greeted the kindly and devoted Inspector wherever he passed, so different from the cowed aspect of the inmates of charitable institutions in Naples, where the funds belonging to the poor are squandered by the "administrators" (governors employed for electioneering) and sundries. Some 50,000 florins are distributed annually as out-door relief, and now the soup-kitchen is, alas, crowded with men and women and children who a year or two ago were industrious members of the community. The kitchens of both hospitals and this poorhouse are splendid; the food exquisitely cooked and abundant, especially for the aged and infirm. To these is given wine three times a week; to the able-bodied who work, once a week. As the wine of the Istrian district is dear and scarce, while beer is cheap and abundant, I asked why the latter beverage was not substituted for the healthy inmates. "Beer is a *tedescheria* [Germanism]," said the administrator quite naturally. One branch of the house is set aside for the poor Jews with separate kitchen, and this is just, as the Israelites contribute largely to the maintenance of public charities, and the Baron Elio Morpurg figures at the head of most public subscriptions. In a ward the beggars are kept apart until the managers can ascertain whether they are really indigent or ne'er-do-weels.

In a separate building and with a quite distinct management is the reformatory or workhouse for boys found on the streets or declared by the parents to be incorrigible. Here the fare is Spartan and the sleeping arrangements are certainly not luxurious. The lads are all drilled and have a fine band; they receive an elementary education and are taught trades, and in both the houses the work of the youths is remunerative to the institution and to themselves. So open and honest is, and I am assured ever has been, the administration that not a sou is squandered. Out of 800 waifs and strays taken in at six and kept till fifteen years of age, 80 per cent. may be called "redeemed"; 106 left the establishment last year. Of these, thirty are skilled workmen earning good salaries; thirty-six manage to earn their living; three have been sent to the Pia Casa; only eight are seemingly gone to the bad.

Every public department depends on the municipality. The Magnifico Podestà is the real and venerated representative of the city. The communal electoral right is possessed by every inhabitant over twenty years of age who has paid taxes for two years. The Podestà is also head of the diet which represents the Government of the territory. He must be elected by at least two-thirds of the members present, and these must in Trieste be twenty-eight. The election must be confirmed by the Emperor, and the confirmation communicated to the Council in public by the counsellor of the Lieutenancy. The present Magnifico Podestà, Dr. Ferdinand Pittari, elected by 51 out of 52 counsellors present, and at once confirmed in office, belongs to a well-known and much esteemed family of Liberals, and his son Richard is one of the literati of the city. The speeches that accompanied the inaugural ceremony were noteworthy for the pervading leaven of Italian sentiment. The "Magnifico," on his elevation to the highest civic dignity, was congratulated on being a "Triestine by birth and at heart," independent, liberal, *and Italian;* and in returning thanks, after dwelling on the disastrous conditions of Trieste at the present moment—a well-directed sentence to the pressmen, whom he exhorted "to keep in mind their high mission, to exert their widespread influence for the benefit of the well-beloved Trieste, to avoid party struggles and civic strife"—he promised the citizens present to "promote to the uttermost the instruction and the education of our people in the language of our forefathers, the mother-tongue that is yours and mine," which pledge was received with "rapturous applause." Soon after his election, a rumor spread that, in a tour of inspection, the Magnifico had addressed the populations in an alien tongue. He took the earliest opportunity to "refute the fable," saying, "In my tour of inspection throughout our territory, I spoke to all and everywhere in Italian, nor could I have done otherwise or spoken in an 'unknown tongue.' Although my principles in the question of nationality are deeply rooted in my heart, and their sincerity has been proved by my whole past, I gladly embrace this opportunity to affirm that the integrity of my sentiments, of my love for our mother tongue and for our national culture, increases with increasing years, and that I hold it my highest duty to promote the advance of both."

Such public expressions of sentiments by public functionaries in Trieste itself are proofs beyond all doubt of the Italianism of the citizens. During my too brief sojourn in the beautiful city, Dr. Attilio Hortis, the noted writer, most popular citizen, and the director of the civic library, was our courteous and intelligent cicerone. Politics were naturally eschewed between us. Since the suppression of the Pro Patria society by the Government, the National League has taken its place, and its members are numerous and patriotic. Certain it is that *if*, whensoever and howsoever, Trieste gravitate to Italy, the noble city and territory will bring a vast and valuable contribution of civic virtue, of talent, industry, and self-government, in the Anglo-Saxon sense of the term, to the mother country, which will welcome it with open arms. J. W. M.

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BARDOUX'S LAFAYETTE.—II.

PARIS, August 16, 1892.

ON the 21st of October, 1778, Congress gave Gen. Lafayette leave to go to France and to fix for himself the date of his return. The *Alliance*, the best ship in the navy, was chosen to convey him to Europe. Lafayette had a long journey to make on horseback, to go to Boston, where he was to embark; he fell ill on the way, but he succeeded in reaching Boston, and put to sea on January 11, 1779. He arrived at Brest on the 20th of February.

He had left France as a rebel; he returned to it triumphantly. He had to undergo *pro forma* a week's arrest for his desertion; he was allowed to spend the time at the Hôtel de Noailles. All the ladies of the court wished to kiss him. Marie-Antoinette gave him a regiment. The French Government gave the command of the corps which was sent to America to Rochambeau. Lafayette was only twenty-two years old; Rochambeau had served brilliantly in the Seven Years' War. Lafayette remained in the service of the United States and became a sort of negotiator between the French and the American forces. He embarked on the *Hermione* on February 11, 1780. Two months before, Madame de Lafayette had presented him with a son, who was named George after Washington, his godfather. A French squadron, with 5,000 men, reached Rhode Island on July 17, after seventy days of navigation. The French fortified themselves, and Lafayette informed Rochambeau of the project which Washington had formed against New York. "The officers and soldiers of the American Army," wrote Lafayette to M. de Vergennes on July 23, "have not a shilling. The former receive only a ration, and get no clothes, nor have they, as the soldiers have, the hope of receiving clothes from France." M. Bardoux gives us an interesting correspondence between Lafayette, who was ardent for immediate action, and Rochambeau, who stuck to Rhode Island. "It is always old Father Rochambeau who speaks to his dear son Lafayette, whom he loves and will always love and esteem to the end of his life."

When Gen. Phillips, by the order of Clinton, left New York to join the traitor Arnold, who had landed in Virginia with English troops, Lafayette was sent by Washington to Virginia with a force which numbered hardly 2,000 men. They had neither shoes nor shirts. The merchants of Baltimore lent Lafayette 2,000 guineas to buy cloth. The women whom he saw at a ball given in his honor undertook to make up the shirts. The young men of Baltimore formed a squadron of light cavalry. Lafayette marched with great rapidity towards Richmond and arrived before Phillips. After the death of this officer, Lord Cornwallis came to make a junction with Arnold. Speaking of Lafayette, he wrote: "The boy cannot escape me." The boy escaped him, nevertheless, and was always on his flank or his rear. Writing to his wife, Lafayette says: "It was not reasonable to confide to me such a command; if I had been unlucky, the public would have treated this partiality as blindness. . . . However, the campaign has taken a better turn than we could have hoped." The end, in fact, was near. Cornwallis's plan is now well known, as well as Washington's. A new French force was expected; Admiral de Grasse arrived with 3,200 men, and the memorable siege of Yorktown began. Cornwallis had to capitulate on the 19th of October, 1781. "The play is over," wrote Lafayette on the 20th to the Comte de Maurepas, "and the fifth act is ended."

Lafayette arrived in Paris unexpectedly on the 21st of January, 1782. M. de Ségur, the new Minister of War, announced to him that the King had appointed him "Maréchal de Camp" of his armies. The return of Lafayette created a real enthusiasm. Verses were made for him on the stage; he figured in "L'Amour Français," a play of Rochon de Chabannes. M. Bardoux forgets nothing. What do you think of this? "The eighteenth century always claimed its rights, and this model husband none the less inspired a very tender passion, which in time changed into faithful friendship, in the most charming person at court, and the handsomest, said her contemporaries—Madame de Simiane." Then comes a long eulogy of this lady; the climax is in these words: "To be beloved by Madame de Simiane seemed in the eyes of the old Duc de Laval to be as difficult a conquest as that of the principles of 1789." Really we could not have expected to see the principles of '89 in this affair. To be sure, M. Bardoux ends this little episode by saying the worldly successes of M. de Lafayette "were never of the same value to him as the pleasures of home."

Lafayette had become a representative man. "Surely it was much in the eyes of the nation to have beaten the English, on land and sea, for the first time since Louis XIV., and to have thus avenged a century of humiliation. But there was another sentiment in the popular favor: public opinion felt instinctively that Lafayette had fought for a noble and just cause, the liberty of a people. It was the Revolution that came back from America, and the General represented at the same time the triumphs of the present and the hopes of the future." Lafayette's letter to Washington (February 5, 1783) after the signing of the preliminaries of peace, is well known and has justly been admired; it is that in which for the first time he touches the question of slavery. "Now that you are going to have peace, allow me to propose to you a plan which might become very useful to the negro portion of the human race. Let us join and buy a small estate where we can try to give liberty to the negroes." Lafayette was always in quest of some great and noble purpose. He embarked in June, 1784, on his third journey to America, and was received triumphantly wherever he went. Washington met him at Richmond and took him to Mt. Vernon. He had a formal reception in the Congress; his name was given to various towns; he became a citizen of the United States. His first act on his return to France was a campaign for the Protestants, who had no civil status at the end of the eighteenth century. Their marriages were not legitimate, their wills had no legal force, their children were bastards. It is certainly curious to see that at first Lafayette found no echo. "Nobody," he writes to Washington, "is willing to give me a written line or to help me in any way."

In these years which preceded the French Revolution, Lafayette received many Englishmen and Americans. He had for his *coureur* an American Indian in his original costume, who called him father. He received Marmontel, the Abbé Morellet, the writers and the philosophers. He lived with great simplicity. When the state of the finances determined the convocation of 144 Notables, he was chosen one, and he played an important part in the meetings of this pseudo-parliament. He examined boldly all the reforms which could be made, and stood by the principle that retrenchment was to precede the creation of new taxes. Calonne proposed to the King to shut him up in the Bastille, but Louis XVI. was sincerely inclined to the policy of reform and of retrenchment. Lafayette was the first to pronounce in the Assembly of the Notables the word "States-General." The effect was extraordinary. "What," said the Comte d'Artois, "you ask for the convocation of the States-General?" "Yes, Sir, and even something better." The "something better" was a national and representative assembly.

Lafayette obtained civil equality for the Protestants, and it is only just to say that his chief supporter was the Bishop of Langres. "He has," said the latter, "spoken as a philosopher. I speak as a bishop, and I will say that I prefer the temple to the *prêche* and ministers to *prédicants*." Lafayette was elected deputy of the order of nobility for the *sénéchaussée* of Riom in the States-General at the very moment when Washington had accepted the Presidency of the United States. His career in the difficult years of the Revolution is well known. He had illusions, but not too many. He knew that the Tarpeian rock was near the Capitol. On the very day when he arrived in Paris at the Hôtel de Noailles, for the assembling of the States-General, he told this story to his family: He had made in 1785 a visit to the great Frederick at Potsdam, and in their conversation he had maintained that America would never have either noblemen or kings. "'Sir,' said a moment afterwards the old King, fixing on me his penetrating eye, 'I have known a young man who, after having visited countries where liberty and equality reigned, took it into his head to establish all that in his own country. Do you know what happened to him?' 'No, Sire.' 'Sir,' continued the King with a smile, 'he was hanged.'" Lafayette would not have been hanged, he would certainly have been guillotined if he had not fled the army at the moment when he had become the *bête noire* of the Jacobins.

It will ever be a sad and painful thing to go over those agitated years which followed the convocation of the States-General, and which ended in the establishment of a bloody and organized Terror. Events follow each other in quick succession, but their direction is always the same. The Constitutional party, the party that thought of establishing in France a government similar to that of England, has soon to give way to the Republican party; the deputies of France become the mere tools of the clubs of the capital; the clubs themselves devour each other—after the Girondins, the Jacobins.

When we read this second half of the work of M. Bardoux, we are struck by the great hatred which Queen Marie-Antoinette felt for Lafayette. At a time when there was a question of choosing between him and Pétion for Mayor of Paris, she preferred Pétion; she thought he could manage the popular party better than Lafayette. Lafayette was a gentleman, a nobleman, and the Queen resented what she considered as his defection more keenly than she did the folly of a Pétion. It is unbecoming and cruel to say a word against the unfortunate Marie-Antoinette; but the historian may deplore that she would never place confidence in a man like Lafayette, who was not a real enemy of monarchy, and who, at any rate, could always be trusted and was incapable of treason. Lafayette, as commander of the National Guard of France, became the real gaoler of the King and Queen. Such are the terrible fatalities of history. His turn came soon afterwards; he, also, had his "flight to Varennes," but he was luckier than the

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King and the Queen: his life was spared, but he knew the bitterness of exile and the languor of captivity in an Austrian prison.

Correspondence.

RAPHAEL'S HOURS AND GALATEA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent calls attention to the resemblance between the "Third Hour of the Day" in Raphael's "Hours" and the "Galatea" in the Farnesina fresco. This resemblance, which is so close as to make it impossible to doubt that one figure was copied from the other, was long ago pointed out by Passavant in his book upon Raphael ('Rafael von Urbino und sein Vater Giovanni Santi'). Oddly enough, in the original (the German) edition of his book Passavant, by a species of heterophemy, ascribes the origin of these figures of the Hours to the enthusiasm excited by the discoveries in Pompeii. I am writing away from my books, but I believe that in the French translation of the 'Rafael' "the Baths of Titus" is substituted for "Pompeii."

The action of the arms and hands is precisely the same in the "Galatea" and in the "Third Hour," but Galatea holds in both hands the reins with which she guides the dolphins attached to her sea-shell chariot, while in the Hour a censer with burning incense is substituted for the dolphins, and the chains it swings by take the place of the reins. Another point to notice in the Galatea fresco is, that the Cupid lying on the dolphin in the foreground is as nearly like as possible to the infant Christ in the Bridgewater Madonna. Of these two figures also, it may be said, it is impossible to doubt that one was copied from the other. Which of the two figures thus repeated, the Galatea and the Cupid, was the original? Were they first used in the Farnesina fresco, or were they employed in that picture after they had done service elsewhere—the one in the Vatican, the other in the Bridgewater Madonna? The figure of the "Hour" is so well balanced in design and so logical in composition that it looks made expressly for the place it fills. The "Galatea," when compared with it, has rather the air of an adaptation. The Cupid, on the other hand, seems at home on his dolphin in the "Galatea," while as a sprawling lusty infant in the Madonna picture he has certainly an incongruous look. C. C.

Fishkill-on-Hudson, August 22, 1892.

THE PROCESS OF AN ERROR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I wish to make a few observations on a point which your review of Mr. Samuel Ramsey's *English Language and English Grammar*, in No. 1410, leaves untouched.

With regard to "the expressions of which 'the house *was being built*' is a type," Mr. Ramsey writes:

"According to Mr. Kington Oliphant, this form of expression came into common use about 1770, although he cites two examples more than 300 years older. How many examples escaped notice we cannot say; but so much is clear, that the expression has been in the language more than 400 years." P. 473.

First we find Mr. Oliphant saying:

"The new-fangled *tea is being made*, or any such-like construction, was not in vogue until about 1770." "Owing to this confusion, a wholly new English idiom was produced about 1770." *The Old and Middle English* (1878), pp. 337, 389.

Mr. Oliphant is here indebted to me, though I am unmentioned, and not even alluded to. In my *English Adjectives in -able* (1877), p. 28, foot-note, I quote "there *is* a good opera now *being acted*," and, "Sir Guy Carlton *was . . . being examined*," from letters of Mrs. James Harris (1769), and her husband the famous philologist (1779), respectively.

Desiring to be quite sure about these passages, I addressed a note to the late Earl of Malmesbury, the editor of the work in which they occur, begging him to look at their originals. The Earl thereupon wrote to me: "In reply to your note respecting the diction of the First Lord Malmesbury's letters, I beg to inform you that the manuscript was copied literally, and in no degree altered."

In *The New English* (1886), vol. ii., p. 188, foot-note, Mr. Oliphant says of me: "He seems unaware of the fact that the idiom was anything but new." Its antiquity he professes to have shown in vol. i., p. 273, and vol. ii., p. 58.

The "two examples more than 300 years older" than 1770, which Mr. Ramsey refers to, I have proved, in this journal, vol. xliv., p. 447 (1887), to be forgeries of Mr. Oliphant, if interpolation is forgery. This matter, I may add, has been examined by Mr. R. O. Williams, in *Our Dictionaries*, etc. (1890), pp. 40, 41 and p. 138.

Again, in this journal, vol. xlv., p. 313 (1887), I have pointed out that Mr. Oliphant was misled, by unscrupulous editing, in his representation that "Italy *is being held* dangerous" fell from the pen of a letter-writer in 1611.

My discussion of English Imperfects Passive, in *Modern English* (1873), pp. 321–359 and 368, seems, by the by, to have escaped Mr. Ramsey's researches.

Anticipating, it may be, the emergence of constructions like those in question is, "we *'re still a being robbed*," quoted in this journal, vol. xlv., p. 156 (1887), from *The Villain*, by Thomas Porter (1663).

Earlier, by upwards of a century, than the quotations given above from the Harrises is the following, which, if clear of corruption, is critically in point:

"Thence Creed and I, by water, up to Fox Hall, and over against it stopped, thinking to see some Cock-fighting; but it *was* just *being done*, and, therefore, back again to Spring Garden." Samuel Pepys (June 3, 1667), *Diary*, etc. (1875-79), vol. iv., p. 357.

This sentence, taken from the Rev. Mynors Bright's edition of Pepys, does not appear among the excerpts previously published by Lord Braybrooke.

The Rev. Prof. Skeat, with his never-failing kindness, informs me, in reply to an inquiry relating to the sentence, that he believes Mr. Bright has been dead some years,* and adds: "I do not know who now can read Pepys' cipher." He also says, in the letter from which I am quoting: "I quite believe that *is being* can boast of no 'early instances.' I know of none."

In Mr. Williams's book which I have already named, Miss Austen's "for, as to Frank, it *was* more than *being* tacitly *brought up* as his uncle's heir" is cited as if it exemplified locutions like *is being built*. But Miss Austen's "being brought up," instead of forming part of an imperfect tense, is a passive gerund, forming part of a phrasal nominative after "was," the nominative before which is "it."

From "it is not shooting, but being shot, that I object to," who would think of extracting "is being shot," as an imperfect?

Further remarks on the style of construction about which Mr. Ramsey has repeated an exploded misstatement, I postpone to another occasion. F. H.

Marlesford, England, August 4, 1892.

*Mr. Bright died in 1883.—Ed. Nation.

Notes.

Henry Holt & Co. have in press the second volume of Ten Brink's 'Early English Literature'; 'German Literature in its Chief Epochs,' by Prof. Kuno Francke of Harvard; a translation of Prof. R. Falkenberg's 'History of Modern Philosophy,' from Nicholas of Cusa to the present time; 'Hume,' by Prof. Aikens of Trinity, N. C.; 'Hegel,' by Prof. Royce of Harvard; a 'Dictionary of Botanical Terms,' popular as well as scientific, by A. A. Crozier; and 'Physics,' by Prof. George F. Barker of the University of Pennsylvania.

G. P. Putnam's Sons announce that they have in preparation an edition of the writings of Thomas Paine, edited by his latest biographer, Mr. Moncure D. Conway. It will make two or three volumes uniform with the Life, with divisions (1) political and sociological, and (2) religious and literary; and the reprint will be from the original publications. Mr. Conway will furnish notes. The undertaking is much to be commended.

The Shakspere Society of New York propose a four-text edition of "Hamlet," to be sold to 750 subscribers. In exact facsimile the texts of 1603, 1604, 1623, will be paralleled with an eclectic modern text, and accompanied by a translation of the German version performed in Dresden in 1603. The volume will be luxuriously got up.

Macmillan & Co. have in press 'Children of the King,' a new novel by F. Marion Crawford. The 'Letters of Charles Dickens,' which originally appeared in three octavo volumes, are to be compressed by the same firm into one volume, uniform with their current popular edition of the novels.

Ginn & Co. promise in the fall 'An Introduction to Narrative Greek Composition,' by Prof. Morris H. Morgan of Harvard.

The letters, etc., of Columbus have been collected in English version by Mr. Paul Leicester Ford, in a volume called 'Writings of Christopher Columbus,' which will shortly be published by Charles L. Webster & Co., who announce also 'Autobiographia; or, the Story of a Life,' selections from the prose writings of Walt Whitman, by Arthur Stedman.

The Century Company's fall list includes, besides Mr. Cole's 'Old Italian Masters,' several other reprints from the *Century*, viz., Mrs. Van Rensselaer's 'English Cathedrals,' illustrated by Joseph Pennell—in two editions; 'Plays in Provence,' by the same artist in collaboration with Mrs. Pennell; Dr. Weir Mitchell's 'Characteristics'; Dr. J. M. Buckley's 'Faith-Healing, Christian Science, and Kindred Phenomena,' and a new edition of Frank Stockton's works in five volumes, sold only in sets.

The Hakluyt Society are about to issue, in two volumes, Pietro della Valle's eight letters from India, edited by Mr. Edward Grey, late of the Bengal Civil Service. The same society will issue next year, also in two volumes, the voyages of Capt. Luke Foce and Capt. James to Hudson's Bay, edited by Mr. Miller Christy. Mr. Clements Markham, the distinguished President of the Society, has lately been stay-

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ing at Genoa and studying the Columbian records. He has promised to contribute a collection of unpublished early voyages to America—fragments relating to Cabot, Cortereal, Vespucci, and Verrazzano. Mr. Delmar Morgan, the genial Honorary Secretary of the Hakluyt, has in contemplation the publication of an edition of the letters of Peter Martyr d'Anghiera, the chronicler of the great events of the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella. Meanwhile, Dr. Robert Brown's edition of Leo Africanus is nearly ready for the printer; and the same may be said of a book on early English voyages to the Levant, with some account of the Levant Company, by Mr. Theodore Bent. Mr. Everard im Thurm, who is now in England on leave of absence from British Guiana, hopes to devote two months of work at Torquay this autumn to his edition of Schomburgk's very admirable volume of Sir Walter Raleigh's 'Empire of Guiana.'

The latest step in the popularization of critical views about the composite structure of the Pentateuch is taken in Prof. E. C. Bissell's 'Genesis Printed in Colors' (Hartford: Belknap & Warfield). Each supposed documentary source or fragment has its own color of type, and the result is a typographically well-executed and graphic presentation of the scheme of textual analysis adopted by Kautzsch and Socin. Prof. Bissell himself does not go with the critics, and in a brief introduction makes an assault upon their methods and results. This lends a curious impression to his book, as if it were a testimony to the robustness of his own faith: he reasserts the old opinion in the face of the demonstration that it is no longer tenable.

'Poor's Manual of the Railroads of the United States' (New York: H. V. & H. W. Poor) rounds out its twenty-fifth year with its present issue. In the quarter century the task of the editors has grown from dealing with 39,250 miles of road to dealing with nearly four times that number (170,601 on January 1, 1892). The tonnage in the same period has increased fifteen fold. When to these simple figures we add the capital invested and the number of persons dependent upon or immediately affected by the railroad system, the folly of strikers who think the fiat of a "lodge" can withstand the weight of such an interest, becomes apparent. The Messrs. Poor themselves succumb to it, for in order to keep their volume within bounds they are constrained to separate some matters for issue in a new form, viz., 'Poor's Directory of Railway Officials' and 'Poor's Handbook of Investment Securities,' which must share the authoritative character of the older publication.

Two bibliographies are on our table, one a 'List of Books relating to Aaron Burr,' by Hamilton Bullock Tompkins (Brooklyn: Historical Printing Club). This fills eighty-three pages and as many leaves, and indicates in what public libraries the books may be found. The other work is a 'Homœopathic Bibliography of the United States (1825-1891),' by Thomas Lindsley Bradford, M.D. (Philadelphia: Boericke & Tafel), a work of large proportions—nearly 600 pages—and seemingly conscientiously executed. It deals not only with books, and with books *con* as well as *pro*, but with societies, colleges, hospitals, dispensaries, pharmacies, and, synoptically, medical legislation in the several States.

In reprints, we have 'Three Feathers' and 'Madcap Violet,' in the Harpers' uniform series of William Black's novels; 'The Old Curiosity Shop,' with 'Master Humphrey's Clock,' and 'Martin Chuzzlewit,' in Charles Dickens the younger's reproduction of first editions of his father's works (Macmillan); and two final volumes in Roberts Bros.' edition of Jane Austen. The first call for no special remark. The Dickens volumes have a particular interest for America, since the original scheme of 'Master Humphrey's Clock' involved a journey to the United States in search of material for that ill-conceived periodical, and 'Martin Chuzzlewit,' if not a product of the journey, profited by it, and was laid to the charge of Dickens along with the 'American Notes.' The introductions give all necessary bibliographical information, and the original illustrations are reproduced. The posthumous 'Lady Susan' and 'The Watsons,' together with Mr. Austen Leigh's memoir of his aunt, fill one of the pretty volumes of the Messrs. Roberts. The other consists of a selection of letters of Jane Austen from Lord Brabourne's compilation. Miss Woolsey, who is responsible for this, furnishes a preface. The set is now capitally rounded out. Two portraits of the author are given in these last volumes, and a view of her burial-place in Winchester Cathedral.

The contrast between 'Young Lucretia, and Other Stories,' by Mary E. Wilkins (Harpers), and 'The Pot of Gold,' which was published contrary to her wish, is all in favor of the author's judgment. We willingly exchange the fantastic element of those earlier tales for these strong characters in plain setting. Miss Wilkins's children are as real as her grown people, and as distinctly possessed of the New England conscience which gives point to nearly all the stories. Her condensed style will especially suit young readers.

Any student who is industrious enough to keep a manuscript volume of notes and criticisms on his reading, and a scrap-book in connection with it, will find opportunity for still further labor, not without compensation, in T. E. Shields's ingenious 'Index Omnium' (Boston: Joseph Knight Co.). This provides for a catalogue of the books annotated, and a dictionary of leading words by which the thought or passage can be traced back to the author, or to the synopses and criticisms in the subsidiary volumes mentioned above. The nearly three thousand lines of entry for books read would serve, if one chose, for cataloguing a very respectable private library.

Two little volumes, the fruit of recent studies by Prof. A. Beljame, may be recommended to students of the French language, but also to those who would have a better knowledge of their own English tongue. One is a prose translation of Tennyson's 'Enoch Arden,' facing the original text; the other is the same poem annotated and supplied with very happy comparisons of Tennyson with himself and with other poets and writers, and an elaborate examination of the versification of 'Enoch Arden.' Add a sketch of the life of Tennyson, and a bibliography which enumerates translations into Latin, German, Spanish, Dutch, Hungarian, Italian, Norwegian, Czech, and French—for Prof. Beljame has had predecessors. His publisher is Hachette.

From Hachette, too (Boston: Carl Schoenhof), comes a school edition of Manzoni's 'I Promessi Sposi' in pocket form, and therefore, of course, abridged; the sequel of the story after the flight of "the betrothed" being discarded. There are notes and a partial vocabulary.

The eleventh annual report of the Dante Society at Cambridge, Mass., reveals an increasing membership and one very notable loss—the late Mr. Lowell. Prof. Carpenter concludes his valuable reproduction of documents concerning Dante's public life. Mr. William C. Lane, with his customary skill, records the additions to the Dante collection in the Harvard Library. A Harvard Annex prize essay of last year, by Lucy Allen Paton, concludes the pamphlet, and will be read with profit. The subject is Dante's personal character, and for the major part is adequately treated, with some painstaking inductions and references for which students will be grateful to the author.

The old records of the ancient English Colony of Barbados are being now recopied at the public expense. Although the colony was planted as far back as 1627, fires and hurricanes have wrought havoc among its archives, and historical students will be glad to learn that a fair number of papers date as far back as 1640.

Americans who may be engaged upon historical researches should know that the branch of the Record Office, London, where the papers relating to America and the Plantations are dealt with, is now in charge of Mr. Hubert Hall, who is a most efficient successor to Mr. Noel Sainsbury.

Prof. W. M. Davis has recently published an interesting article upon winter thunderstorms, in which, from comparison of observations, he finds that while such storms are indeed less common in winter than in summer, those which do occur during the cold season are chiefly at night and near the coast. He concludes that the convectional origin of summer thunder-storms implies a like origin for such storms in winter, near or upon the ocean, even if they are chiefly nocturnal. He regards them provisionally as chiefly dependent upon a pronounced vertical temperature gradient, which may be determined partly by the cooling of the upper air by radiation about the lofty cloud stratum of cyclonic storms, and partly by the maintenance of relatively high temperatures in the lower air by the conservative power of the ocean.

At a recent meeting of the Royal Meteorological Society, Mr. E. J. Lowe read a paper upon raindrops. By careful study, and after making more than three hundred sketches, he has developed some curious facts relating to the varieties in raindrops—subjects wherein the careless observer would have said no difference could exist. An ingenious method of preserving their forms was described. By means of slates ruled in inch squares and made in book form, to be capable of instant closing, the splash of the drop was accurately obtained, and afterwards copied upon paper similarly ruled. It was found that some drops make a clean, circular spot, others show splashes about the edge, and some drops seem to be actually hollow, failing to wet the whole surface enclosed. The size varies from a mere point to a spot of at least two inches in diameter. Mr. Lowe exhibited, also, diagrams of interest as showing the shapes of low-lying mist-drops, and of the forms taken by melting snowflakes.

— The September *Atlantic* gives little occasion for comment. Apart from the serials, which occupy the space of the number to an unusual degree, room is found for a nature paper from the sympathetic pen of Olive Thorne Miller, under the clever but misleading title, "Cliff-Dwellers in the Cañon"; for a "Memory" paper, which contains a pre-natal reminiscence of the sort collected by psychical-research societies; and for a seasonable paper on the worn but important subject of how to teach literature in the schools, by Mr. Horace E. Scudder. It is not the first time that Mr. Scudder has urged the desirability of a more

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rational method in the younger reading-classes, and, indeed, so much has been said in all quarters that nothing remains except to keep the subject alive and, if possible, troublesome, in the hope of wearing out the stolid conservatism of the "committeemen" by importunity, or of exciting the routine-drilled teacher to experiment by reiterated advice and encouragement. It may be suspected that one difficulty in the way is that such articles do not reach the power in control—that is, the school board; and teachers seem rather to rely on purely educational publications in which they have a voice, or, at least, find these topics treated from the pedagogic point of view. Mr. Scudder treats the subject from the position of a man of letters who believes in the educating power of literature as one of its great functions; and the methods he suggests of preparing the minds of school-children from the start, so that they shall come to the appreciation of the best books as naturally as they pass from arithmetic to geometry, are such as have been widely approved by thinking literary men, and should have entered upon the practical stage of reform before now. The poet Whittier pays a tribute to Dr. Holmes upon the occasion of his birthday, in lines which reflect the serenity and pleasantness of his own old age.

—*Harper's* continues the thumb-nail review of Parisian literary celebrities, or pseudo-celebrities, by Theodore Child, and at the head are placed the cultivators of "egoism" on the one hand and the followers of Vogüé on the other, as the present players on that stage of the coteries which has been contemporary with literature in Paris; and the author winds up with sketches of the old lions, the dramatists, and the editors. The most spirited paper is Mr. Martin's sporting contribution, describing fox-hunting in the Genesee Valley, where all the conditions for the sport exist in ideal perfection. Mr. Ralph writes of the State of Washington in his usual vein, and the back-country town-meeting is again described as "The Aryan Mark" by Miss Anna C. Brackett, while Mr. Howard Pyle pictures better than he describes the Sand-Hills. The most curious paper is Mr. Hutton's series of illustrations of death-masks, ranging from Dante to "Ben Caunt," with its thoroughly informed and lightly worded text.

—The *Century* contains a full account of the exploration of the Grand Falls of Labrador last summer by Henry G. Bryant, illustrated with several views which give us the first ocular knowledge of this great natural feature of the North, which has so long lain just beyond our horizon. The expedition was made at the same time the Bowdoin College party set out with the same object, and a narrative of the experience of the latter has been told, as Mr. Bryant remarks, in a scientific publication; but he was more fortunate in reaching results, and brought back measurements and photographs. The height of the principal fall is 316 feet, and the breadth about 50 yards, being narrowed in the rapids from a breadth of 300 yards a mile upstream. The story of the journey is told in an interesting way, and the wonder is that in these days the journey should have been so long unperformed, though not altogether unattempted. Alaska affords material for another paper of travel, and Mr. Roosevelt touches the same ground of interest in his Elk-Hunt in Northwestern Wyoming. Mr. Stedman concludes his papers on poetry; the Life of Columbus and the World's Fair series go on; and there is a large bunch of short stories. A welcome is given to Dvořák, whose portrait is the frontispiece; Mr. Theodore Robinson writes with enthusiasm, but not without restraint, of Monet; and Prof. Brander Matthews contributes a unique article upon artistic posters, mainly of Parisian origin, in which he confidently discerns the promise of a new, if humble, art.

—*Scribner's* brings forward the subject of the Tilden Library in this city, in regard to which Mr. John Bigelow makes several suggestions, the most important being the proposition to place it in Bryant Park and to give it a special cruciform shape, in adopting which it is possible that librarians and architects might agree. The study is a suggestive one, and the proposals made will no doubt receive proper consideration. The article upon "The Education of the Blind" gives information upon a subject which remains a mystery to most persons, and elucidates the different systems of printing; incidentally, too, by mention of a few cases of striking success in educating the blind, the author encourages increased interest in what is certainly one of the most fruitful of modern philanthropic efforts. The history of the buffalo, the prosperity of the Pueblo Indian, the Névsky Prospékt (in the series of Great Streets of the World), and French Classical Painting, are the remaining topics.

—Prof. James Bryce's interesting and suggestive address on the "Migrations of the Races of Men Considered Historically," delivered before the Royal Scottish Geographical Society at the inauguration of its London branch, is printed in the August number of the Society's magazine. After dwelling for a moment on the fact that geography is the meeting-point of the sciences, he defines the three different forms of the movements of population under the terms Transference, Dispersion, and Permeation. To the first of these belong the most of the prehistoric migrations and those which overthrew the Roman Empire. The second is the overflowing of a race into new lands, as the British into North America and Australia, or the Russians into Siberia. The third covers those instances in which "one race or nation so spreads over another race or nation its language, its literature, its religion, its institutions, its customs, or some one or more of these sources of influence, as to impart its own character to the nation so influenced, and thus to substitute its own for the original type." The earliest known instance of this diffusion is that of the Greeks over Asia Minor and the adjacent countries; a later, that of the Arabs over Syria, Egypt, and Northern Africa. Prof. Bryce suggests the possibility also of a similar result in India from English influence, without, however, any mixture of blood, "possibly with little social intimacy," between the European and native races. The main causes of these migrations are food, war, and labor; religion and love of freedom having operated rarely and with but comparatively small results. The lines followed by them have been usually those of least resistance, or, in other words, they have followed the "lines of equal mean temperature, and not so much, I think, of mean annual heat as of mean winter heat." The great movements of population Prof. Bryce divides into five epochs or groups, the prehistoric (including the Etruscan and Aryan, the earliest recorded); the Phœnician, Israelite, and Greek; that termed by the Germans the Wandering of the Peoples (*Völkerwanderung*); the Mohammedan; and the modern, beginning with the discovery of America. The latter is divided again into four great eras, that of the Spaniards into tropical America, the negroes from Africa, the English and French into North America, and the emigration from Europe within the last seventy years. A brief reference only is made to the analogy between these movements and those of animals and plants, as, for instance, the invasion of Europe in comparatively recent times by the brown rat, a native of Asia. In closing, Prof. Bryce gave reasons for the belief that the results of recent changes upon political organizations and types of human culture will be fewer and fewer, showing that since the eleventh century no new nation has arisen in Europe, nor has the migration of different races to America produced a new national type. The time is not far distant, however, when the habitable parts of the world will be filled and the outflow of the nations stopped, and then we may enter upon a "new era, whose phenomena will prove unlike any that have gone before."

—"Franklin Portraits" is a notable feature of the July Bulletin of the Boston Public Library, the list amounting to 239 numbers. The two oil paintings of Franklin—a Duplessis and a supposed Greuze—in the possession of the Library are very well copied by "process" to accompany the iconography. Besides this valuable achievement in a field heretofore little explored, the editors of the Bulletin annex a catalogue of the "John A. Lewis Library," now forming one of its most precious collections in the domain of early Boston books and Puritan literature. The volumes representing the Mather family alone exceed two hundred, and in addition to the large proportion of sermons embraced in them there are hundreds by various ministers, in the very titles of which are reflected the annals of New England, the polity of the Bay Colony, the morals and the superstitions of the time. Not a few of them, like multitudes since, doubtless deserved the running-title, "A manufactory sermon," innocently applied to the Rev. Thomas Barnard's discourse in 1758 before the Boston Society for Encouraging Industry and Employing the Poor. Others had serious occasion enough, like the common article of death, many worthies being commemorated at their taking off, as in Benjamin Colman's 'Ossa Josephi. Or, the Bones of Joseph. Considered in a sermon preached at the lecture in Boston after the funeral of the very honorable and excellent Joseph Dudley, Esq. [1720].' Comets always suggested a sermon, as one did to Increase Mather in 1682, viz., his 'Heaven's Alarm to the World. Or a sermon wherein is shewed that fearful sights and signs in heaven are the presages of great calamities at hand. Second impression.' Much more, of course, were earthquakes a godsend to the pulpit—"the works of God and tokens of his just displeasure," according to the Rev. Thomas Prince in 1727, who also traced in 1749, after an acute experience, "the natural and moral government and agency of God in causing droughts and rains." After Cotton Mather's 'Wonders of the Invisible World,' it is needless to cite the witchcraft sermons collected by Mr. Lewis. Increase Mather furnished 'The Answer of several ministers in and near Boston to that case of conscience, whether it is lawful for a man to marry his wives own sister,' as well as to the question, "whether it be lawful for a church-member among us to be frequently in taverns?" And he shot 'An Arrow against Profane and Promiscuous Dancing. Drawn out of the quiver of the Scriptures.' Joseph Seccombe, on the other hand, held 'Business and Diversion Inoffensive to God, and neces-

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sary for the Comfort and Support of Human Society. A discourse uttered in part at Ammauskeeg-Falls, in the fishing-season." Apart from well-known New England rareties in this collection, we notice a 'Vade Mecum for America: or a Companion for Traders and Travellers' (Boston, 1732); a Hebrew Grammar for Harvard students (Boston, 1735); and Tully's "Cato Major" printed with explanatory notes of his own by Franklin in Philadelphia in 1744.

—Some of our readers who have known Mr. F. C. Penrose, supervising architect of St. Paul's in London, as Director of the British School of Archæology at Athens, will be interested to learn that the King of Greece has just conferred upon him the Golden Cross of the Order of the Saviour, to which not a few Hellenists of distinction, Prof. W. W. Goodwin among them, already belong. Meanwhile, Miss Emily Penrose, his daughter, has illustrated Somerville College, Oxford, by achieving a distinction never before won by any of her sex—a first-class in the Final School of Literæ Humaniores. The remarkable knowledge of History and Archæology which enabled her to win a distinction hitherto considered beyond a woman's reach, was well exemplified in a lecture on "Ancient Methods of Voting" which she gave at a friend's house in Oxford, just at the close of the recent heated electoral campaign. Miss Penrose has been presented to a Travelling Fellowship, and is now studying at Berlin. In the autumn she announces lectures on Greek and Roman history and archæology; some of them to be given (by permission of the Trustees) at the British Museum. Nor is this the only proof in store for us of the careful study of Greek that English women are now making. Following to some extent the example of Miss Harrison and Mrs. Verrall, Miss Eugénie Sellars is preparing a text, with translation and annotation, of those parts of the Elder Pliny's Natural History which bear upon Art and Archæology. This work is already so far advanced toward completion that its publication is arranged for.

STRACHEY'S HASTINGS AND THE ROHILLA WAR.

Hastings and the Rohilla War. By Sir John Strachey, G.C.S.I. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

MACAULAY'S Essay on Warren Hastings has hitherto been accepted and admitted into the historical curriculum as not only a brilliant piece of narrative and rhetoric, but a faithful account of the events with which it deals and a genuine picture of the early period of British rule in India. As a study in history it ought now to be laid aside, however highly it may be admired as a specimen of narrative and rhetoric. With regard to the story of Nuncomar, Sir James Stephen seems to have conclusively proved that the famous essay is a tissue of brilliant fable. He has shown that Hastings had nothing whatever to do with the trial of Nuncomar for forgery, which arose out of a lawsuit long anterior to the existence of any collision or relations of any kind between the two men, or with his execution; that the charges against Impey of judicial murder and other outrages are baseless; that Nuncomar had a perfectly fair trial, though under a very harsh law; and that the general picture of misrule and oppression, though by no means imaginary, is, like most of Macaulay's pictures, monstrously overdrawn.

Sir John Strachey has now performed a similar operation with regard to the "Rohilla" charge. That charge was supposed to weigh most heavily of all on the memory of Hastings. It had never been judicially investigated, Pitt having refused to impeach upon it, though he turned round and with his obedient train of followers voted for impeachment on the charge of extortion practised on Cheyte Singh, which is now, we believe, held to have been groundless, Cheyte Singh having been in reality required to pay no more than was due by the terms on which he held his fief, or than a native suzerain would have exacted. The charge continued, therefore, to pass current and obtain universal credence in Burke's rhetorical or super-rhetorical version; and the author of the last Life of Burke, Mr. John Morley, accepts it without hesitation and moralizes in the usual strain. It is now, apparently, disproved. The belief embodied in Macaulay's Essay is that the Rohillas were a nation of virtuous and prosperous husbandmen and mechanics, "not negligent," to use Macaulay's expression, "of rhetoric and poetry"; that they were invaded without cause and ruthlessly exterminated, while their smiling land was made a waste, by the Nabob Vizier of Oude; and that Hastings sold for a great sum the services of the British Army as auxiliaries in the invasion and extermination. The facts now, if we may trust Sir John Strachey, turn out to be that the Rohillas were not a nation at all, but a tribe of Afghan freebooters who had planted themselves in the midst of a conquered Hindu population and subsisted upon the labor of their subjects, not tilling the earth themselves nor pursuing any art or trade but war; that they had got, against the faith of a treaty, into sinister relations with the Mahrattas, and were threatening to lay open Oude, and ultimately the British Dominion, to the devastating inroads of those terrible marauders; that Hastings, in lending the Nabob the assistance of the British forces, was therefore pursuing a virtually defensive policy and violating no rule of public morality—certainly no rule recognized in the political ethics of Hindustan; and that the payment for the troops was taken from the Nabob not as a bribe, or as the hire of mere mercenaries, but in fulfilment of a regular agreement that the cost should be so defrayed when British troops were employed beyond the limits of their own territory. Not a Rohilla, it seems, can be proved to have been killed except in battle, and a portion only of them were ultimately banished from the country. Excesses were committed by the Nabob's army, as excesses are committed in all Hindu wars, but were deprecated and restrained instead of being cynically defended, as it has been alleged that they were, by Hastings. The native Hindu population, instead of being extirpated, had reason, when the war was over, to rejoice in their change of masters, and the land smiled more than ever. The only thing which lends color, it appears, to the black version of the affair given by Burke, and which his magnificent rhetoric has made familiar to all fancies, is the natural but compromising anxiety of Hastings to prove to his mercantile employers, the directors of the East India Company, that the transaction had been to their pecuniary advantage. A ridiculous feature of the fictitious indictment is the confusion into which the accusers fell of Hafiz Khan, an Afghan chief, who paid his tribute to the established custom of his clan by composing a lay of some kind, with Hafiz, the great Persian poet of the fourteenth century, whence Macaulay has distilled his general description of the people as "not negligent of poetry or rhetoric."

Sir John Strachey is disposed to exonerate Macaulay, whom he seems to regard with a somewhat Eastern veneration, on the ground that Macaulay only implicitly followed James Mill, the historian of India, without making any independent inquiry. To follow blindly a writer whose leaning is unmistakable, in a case where his bias was sure to be peculiarly strong and where justice to great characters was involved, is certainly less culpable than fabrication; but the amplification and exaggeration are Macaulay's own. In the case of Impey, he cannot be acquitted of a still graver offence. Impey's son put forth, after the publication of Macaulay's Essay, a defence of his father's memory. The book was the work of a man devoid of literary and controversial skill, but it brought to light certain facts, at once incontrovertible and momentous, such as that Impey had been arraigned before the House of Commons and formally acquitted, and that, at the trial of Nuncomar, he sat not alone but with three colleagues on the bench whose impartiality was open to no suspicion. Macaulay must have seen the book, and he could have had no answer to its statements, but, trusting, with too much reason, to its unreadable character and to the popular qualities of his own Essay, he continued to circulate charges against Impey's memory of the grossest kind, which he must thenceforth have known to be, in part at least, untrue. It is astonishing that he should not have been aware from his own knowledge of Parliamentary history that the charge of judicially murdering Nuncomar by the hand of Impey had been thrown out by Burke against Hastings in Westminster Hall, no doubt under the inspiration of Francis, and had been formally disclaimed by the House of Commons, which censured Burke for having made it, while Burke never attempted to vindicate himself by substantiating the charge. We will venture to say that no one who has compared Macaulay's Essay with the critiques of Sir James Stephen and Sir John Strachey, will ever again feel implicit faith in Macaulay as an historian.

Burke fell a victim to the malignant infusions of Francis, the deadly personal enemy of Hastings, combined with his own generous but uncontrolled sympathies and his rich but delusive imagination. How far he was carried away appears from his having insisted that Francis, who had fought a duel with Hastings, should be one of the managers of the impeachment—an indecency upon which Pitt, of course, put his veto. His emotions completely overcame his sense of justice. The articles of impeachment drawn by him are pronounced by Sir James Stephen "as shuffling and disingenuous in substance as they are clumsy, awkward, and intricate in form." "They are," says Sir James Stephen, "extremely tricky, very full of insinuations, and covering by their profusion of irrelevant matter the total (and no doubt designed) absence of averments essential to the conclusion which they are meant to support." The language of Burke's speeches in Westminster Hall is incredibly rabid and indecent, especially when it is considered that Hastings, who was present, had at all events filled high imperial office and done great things. Mr. Law, Hastings's counsel, did not very much exaggerate in saying that "the lowest blackguard in a bear-garden would have been ashamed of some of the expressions." Sir J. Strachey quotes some examples:

"For years he [Hastings] lay down upon that sty of disgrace, fattening in it, lying,

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feeding upon that offal of disgrace and excrement and everything that can be opprobious to the human mind." "Such are the damned and damnable proceedings of a judge in hell, and such a judge was Warren Hastings." "A wild beast when his belly is full may be pleased and lick your hand. You might have a serene day under such a beast, but can you under that man Hastings?" "A captain-general of iniquity, thief, tyrant, robber, cheat, sharper, swindler; we call him all these names, and are very sorry that the English language does not afford terms equal to the enormity of his offence." "Sir Walter Raleigh was called a spider of hell. This was foolish and indecent in Lord Coke. Had he been a manager on this trial he would have been guilty of a neglect of duty had he not called the prisoner a spider of hell." "What! compare this man, a bullock-driver [Hastings was alleged to have had something to do with a contract for bullocks], with Tamerlane and those conquerors! When God punished Pharaoh and Egypt, he did not send armies but lice and locusts to lay the land waste."

The want of good sense and self-control displayed in these outbreaks, the list of which might be lengthened and which are not without their counterpart in Burke's Parliamentary speeches, must be held in some measure to account for what has been deemed his unjust exclusion from the Cabinet, though aristocratic prejudice may also have been in part the cause. The language of Hastings, on the other hand, is uniformly dignified, calm, and indicative of a self-possession such as we might expect in the man whose courage, unquailing in extremity, enabled him, when he was beset by an infuriated populace at Benares and in the utmost peril of his life, to send out two despatches, one ordering the commander of the troops at the nearest station to hasten to his assistance, the other giving directions for the prosecution of an extensive scheme of policy in which he was engaged. It is not easy for conquerors to be moral, least of all when they are contending with Mahrattas and with powers of wrong and rapine such as dominated amidst the wreck of the Mogul Empire. But Hastings was no mere marauder or tyrant; he was a great ruler after his kind, and his rule was felt to be at least comparatively beneficial, and a refuge from the plundering anarchy which reigned around, by those over whom he ruled. From personal corruption, whether in the Rohilla affair or any other, he is admitted to have been free.

Some of the most sagacious and patriotic of Englishmen have doubted whether England did what was best for herself in assuming the political dominion of India, and whether she would not have done more wisely had she been content with the possession of stations for her trade. We may all doubt whether conquest can really and permanently be made the instrument of civilization, while we cannot help admitting that the British Empire in India is the greatest experiment of that kind. But no one will doubt that the story of the Empire is worth telling as a record of the energy, fortitude, and administrative power of our race; and we cordially agree with Sir John Strachey in lamenting that it has not up to this present time been well told. Nothing but a history at once true and readable will displace from popular fancy the brilliant rhetoric of Macaulay.

FREEMAN'S HISTORY OF SICILY.

The History of Sicily from the Earliest Times. Vol. III. The Athenian and Carthaginian Invasions. By Edward A. Freeman. Macmillan & Co. 1892. Pp. xxxv, 750.

JUST as this volume issued from the press a few months ago, Prof. Freeman was suddenly stricken by smallpox in Spain, and died. We may say, without disparagement, that Freeman's position as an historian was already established, and could not have been changed had he lived to produce many more volumes of the gigantic history on which he was engaged at the time of his death. At seventy, an author's methods are fixed, his message is known; we need expect from him no further surprise, but confirmation in various forms of his life-long opinions, and the reiteration of mannerisms which perhaps astonished when they were fresh, but grow tedious with age. In the volume before us, Freeman comes into direct competition with precisely the noblest specimen of historical writing which has ever been produced. The account which Thucydides has left of the Sicilian Expedition remains, after two-and-twenty centuries, the model, whether of historical depth and accuracy or of historical narration. It is, indeed, the only record we have of that most momentous episode, and we believe it is trustworthy, not because we can or cannot corroborate it, but because we perceive that Thucydides was one of those rare men who, by a law of their being, tell the truth. If he ever misstated, if he was silent on points about which we should be glad of information, we may be sure that he did not intend to falsify or to suppress. The sixth and seventh books of his history, which chronicle the arrogant ambition and the appalling disaster of the Athenians at Syracuse, being thus acknowledged not only masterpieces of historical composition, but also the sole adequate source from which an account of those events can be drawn, it would seem almost superfluous for a modern historian to attempt to compete with them. He cannot add much to the substance they contain, he cannot improve upon the manner in which they are presented: what, then, can he do?

For one thing, he can interpret them so that they shall be wholly intelligible to readers to-day. Thucydides, writing as a contemporary, could not possibly foresee the ultimate significance of the actions he described; a modern can discern the bearing of those actions, not only upon the immediate destiny of Athens and Sparta and Syracuse, but also upon the development of the world's history. Again, many allusions which were easily understood by Thucydides's fellows, now need explanation; much that they would take for granted now needs to be set down. And, finally, there is a good deal of journeyman's work to be done in reconciling textual contradictions and in settling moot points in topography. To do these things is Freeman's especial task, and in doing them he is aided by the results of recent archæologists and by his own indefatigable search for microscopic facts that may shed light on the main theme. He has, moreover, the advantage of treating the subject from the Sicilian point of view. Other historians have dealt with the Sicilian Expedition as an offshoot from the Peloponnesian War, or as a critical episode in the career of Athens; he deals with it as an experience in the career of Sicily. And though we may deplore the ruin of Athens which it involved, nevertheless we cannot help feeling that the result, so far as Syracuse was concerned, was just, nor can we withhold from the Syracusans who successfully resisted the aggression of the Athenians, admiration similar to that which we feel for any other people that fought for independence. To bring this side out clearly is one of the most important of Freeman's achievements.

But we suspect that to scholars his work will commend itself chiefly by its minute discussion of matters which are of peculiar interest to scholars. He has succeeded in locating the position of the various Athenian encampments, of the lines of circumvallation and counter lines, and of the route taken by Nicias on his retreat. He has examined, literally, every square rod of the site of Syracuse; he has drawn inferences from the wheel-marks in this place and from the traces of masonry in that; he has speculated as to the probable changes in the coast-line of the Great Harbor and as to the extent of the swamp of Lysimeleia. For one who has made no personal inspection of these things on the spot, it is unbecoming to presume to decide whether Freeman's conclusions are always correct; we may say, however, that, having seen some of the great battlefields of antiquity and of modern times, and many of the chief ruins of Greece and Italy, we are a little sceptical as to the possibility of establishing, after twenty centuries' obliteration, the site of a vanished palisade. Without for a moment belittling the real triumphs of archæology, we still find ourselves distrusting much of its circumstantial evidence. Perhaps the best reason for thinking that Freeman's plan is, in the main, correct, is the fact that by it we are able to follow Thucydides's account, which has hitherto seemed, in part, to offer conflicting statements as to the topography. Nevertheless, though from the standpoint of archæology this be an important gain, it is not of corresponding importance from the standpoint of history; for history is chiefly concerned with actions and results, and in her view it matters comparatively little whether the double walls of the Athenians came down to the shore a furlong to the north or south of the spot which Freeman assigns.

His propensity for investigations of this kind certainly impairs the interest of his work to the general reader, because it breaks in too often upon the flow of narrative, and, by constantly diverting the attention to details, lessens the effectiveness of those passages which the general reader and the specialist would alike agree in pronouncing the most memorable. It is to be observed, too, that these digressions often beget no facts, but only one or more conjectures; for, as we have remarked, all that we know of the Sicilian Expedition from contemporary and authentic sources comes from Thucydides. Diodorus Siculus wrote three centuries and a half later, and his account of the expedition is muddled, incomplete, and superficial—so much so, indeed, that we can hardly believe that he had Thucydides's work to guide him. Plutarch, in his lives of Alcibiades and Nicias, is the only other authority, and, though Plutarch made good use of the material that reached him, still he lived as long after the siege of Syracuse as we after the wars of the Roses. To piece out Thucydides with such scraps as Diodorus and Plutarch afford, and with such allusions as are found in other classic writers is, therefore, a task of not great extent. The number of facts cannot be added to; additions can come only by inferences and conjectures. At this work Freeman has few equals, as a single illustration will show. Thucydides mentions the towns of Centuripa, Hyccara, and Inessa; in the text the definite article happens to be omitted before the first two. From this omission, which a casual reader might attribute to the inaccuracy of some early copyist, Freeman deduces the following: "Thucydides did not expect his readers to have heard of Centuripa, any more than of Hyccara in vi, 62, 3. Most likely he had never heard of those towns himself till he heard of these particular facts

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about them. *He therefore gives them no article.* Inessa, which had played so great a part in Sicilian history, he knew even when writing his earlier books. *To Inessa, therefore, he gave the article.* Much of the life of a great original writer is lost when these delicacies are neglected in modern reproduction" (p. 205, note 2). We have italicized the two sentences in which Freeman, who starts with a vague assumption, states a conclusion with extreme positiveness; but, we ask, by what rule of logic can a positive conclusion be derived from premises based on assumed probability? This is Freeman's habitual method in clearing up difficulties; and while no one can deny that his theory is often very plausible, the point to observe is that he sometimes mistakes plausibility for fact.

To give an example of his manner of expanding the brief statement of Thucydides into unnecessary prolixity, we will quote the following typical passage concerning the proceedings of the Athenians at Rhegium. Thucydides says:

"At length they reached Rhegium, the extreme point of Italy, where the fleet reunited. As they were not received within the walls, they encamped outside the city at the temple of Artemis; there they were provided by the inhabitants with a market, and, drawing up their ships on shore, they took a rest. They held a conference with the Rhegians, and pressed them, being Chalcidians themselves, to aid their Chalcidian kinsmen the Leontines. But the Rhegians replied that they would be neutral, and would only act in accordance with the decision of all the Italian Greeks." (Jowett's *Thucydides*, p. 440.)

Freeman's paraphrase runs thus:

"It was at Rhegium, the only ally of Athens, the far older enemy of Locri, a town which had fought on the Athenian side in earlier warfare, that the Athenian generals had most fully looked for welcome and alliance. The Chalcidians of Rhegium at all events must be ready to avenge the wrongs of their Chalcidian kinsfolk of Leontini, their fellows in the first alliance made between Athens and any Siciliot or Italiot city. At Rhegium the three divisions came together; a mighty show they must have made in the narrow waters. Here they did meet with better treatment than at Tarentum or Locri; but still very far beneath their hopes. They were allowed to draw up their ships on shore, and, as the historian emphatically adds, they rested. To Greek sailors the trireme, after all, was not a home for a long journey, but a means of conveyance and an engine of battle. Owing to the unfriendliness of the other towns, they had had to live almost wholly at their oars ever since they started from Corcyra. The rest at Rhegium must have been indeed welcome; but rest and food only were to be had. The army was quartered, and a market was found for them, outside the city, in the precinct of the Rhegine Artemis. But none were received within the walls, save those who went in the character of envoys, among whom we may fancy Alcibiades, rather than Nicias, taking the leading place. They addressed the Rhegine assembly, and called on them to join in helping their Leontine kinsfolk. The answer was that Rhegium would not act alone for either side, but do whatever was agreed on by the other Italiots." (Pp. 137-8.)

Let the reader compare this passage, in which we have not followed Freeman's whimsical "reformed" spelling of proper names, with the extract from Thucydides, and decide for himself whether the trebling in length is accompanied by any material gain in vividness or precision, or by any addition of genuine facts. Such a comparison will serve, better than much criticism from us could serve, to explain both Freeman's method and why it is that his volumes swell to so huge a bulk. At times his work seems not so much a history as a series of theses such as candidates for the doctor's degree prepare for the delectation of the faculty of a German university.

We have given so much attention to what some persons may think minor details, because it is to minor details that Freeman gives most attention. He has his own view of the significance of the great struggle he is describing, but his passion for the minutiæ of topography and archæology too frequently obscures this view. There are days and weeks concerning which we have not an authentic fact, but Freeman will not pass them over in silence; he must fill the void with conjectures as to what was doing; and the result is, that he detracts somewhat from the impressiveness of the really great crises in which he has been guided by the clear light of Thucydides's narrative. He has done well to give Hermocrates due prominence, because Hermocrates, besides being conspicuous as a leader of the Syracusans, was the first to lay down that programme of "Sicily for the Sicilians" which reappears from age to age as the central political ideal of the Sicilians, down to the extinction of the Bourbon tyranny a generation ago. He also emphasizes, as he should, that remarkable speech of Athenagoras in which the principles of true democracy are stated with startling clearness. His portraits of Nicias, Alcibiades, and Demosthenes have no new touches, but he exceeds previous historians in attributing great qualities to Lamachus, who may have been the consummate hero Freeman would have us believe, but whose claim to that distinction rests on insufficient evidence. In its way, there is nothing better in this volume than the description of the devices by which the elder Dionysius became the tyrant of Syracuse; we wonder that Freeman, who sometimes makes effective use of historical parallels, did not suggest a comparison between Dionysius and Louis Napoleon, between whom, in their rise to despotism, many resemblances exist. Certainly, Freeman errs when he implies that the autocratic position of Dionysius at Syracuse in B.C. 405 has a counterpart in the position of Abraham Lincoln during our Civil War (p. 555). We Americans have reached the time when we see that Lincoln was the central figure on the Northern side during the Rebellion, and when, speaking roughly, we say that he represents the cause of the Union, just as we say, speaking roughly, that Washington embodies the cause of the colonies during the Revolutionary War; but every American knows that Lincoln was not a dictator, that he was under the restraint of Congress just as Congress was hemmed in by public opinion, and that he could not possibly have made peace, or taken any other vital step, without the approval of both Congress and public opinion. And had he aimed at dictatorial power for himself, had his ambition been like that of a Cromwell or a Napoleon, he would have sought in vain for subservient accomplices. Dionysius, on the contrary, found a willing multitude ready to confer upon him autocratic privileges.

To only one other of Freeman's general criticisms have we space to allude. He exaggerates the rashness of the Athenians in sending the first expedition against Syracuse. Judging their decision by its disastrous results, it is easy enough to brand it as foolhardy. Freeman goes farther. He can scarcely conceive how a people in its right senses could be lured into such an expedition. He quotes with approval the words of Joseph Butler: "Why might not whole communities and public bodies be seized with fits of insanity as well as individuals? Nothing but this principle, that they are liable to insanity equally at least with private persons, can account for the major part of the transactions which we read in history" (p. 108). Freeman cites England's reckless plunge into the Crimean War, and the French expedition to Egypt in 1798, as modern examples of national mental aberration. It is of course possible that a person or a nation that adopts a policy which you would not adopt may be insane; certainly, it is flattering to your own sanity to hold this opinion; but, on the whole, it is wiser to endeavor to understand the motives which caused the adoption of that policy than to indulge in self-laudation, for two persons may be thoroughly rational though they cannot be stirred by the same motives. And in the case of the Athenians in B.C. 416 we shall discover reasons which, at the time, might have persuaded any people, the most rational, without rousing against it the suspicion of lunacy. The decision was not taken hastily; for months before the matter came to a popular vote, it had been agitated, and, having been once decided, it was brought up for reconsideration, an unusual proceeding, by the cautious Nicias. Grote has stated all this so clearly, and has given so cogently the various reasons which justified the Athenians in embracing this project, that we need only refer the reader to him.

And now we must apply the last test to Freeman's history—the test of style; for on this, in the end, the permanence of all histories depends. It is not enough that an historian be erudite and painstaking, not enough that his facts be precise, in order that his work shall endure. Later discoveries may reveal new data, and the circle of erudition constantly widens. His work, therefore, must have form, symmetry, vividness, life, and charm; and to produce these he must have the poet's imagination. In these days, we take it for granted that the historian has the scholar's equipment, but we have been taught to look suspiciously on any manifestation of the imagination; yet without its agency nothing enduring can be produced, because it is the organ which sifts the essential from the non-essential, which penetrates deepest, which discerns the farthest-reaching relations and laws, and which synthesizes and creates. Freeman possesses the synthetic faculty to a great degree, as he proves by stating that the chief purpose of his history is to show how Sicily has been the pivot on which the everlasting struggle between the Semitic and Aryan races has turned, and the battlefield of many nations. He has succeeded in these first volumes in keeping distinct the character of the diverse settlements in Sicily—not confounding Sicel with Elymian, nor Sican with Phœnician—and in tracing wherever possible the influence of the parent cities of Hellas upon their colonies. This is quite as necessary in the history of Sicily as in a history of the American colonies; for Segesta and Selinus, to take only one example, had no more in common than had Virginia and Louisiana under the reign of George II. But while Freeman understands what is essential in the great currents of history, he does not succeed in selecting what is essential to his narrative. He is not a good story-teller, because, as we have said, he too often interrupts his story by digressions or overloads it with details. His attitude is that of a disputant; he has himself debated so long over many of the points he treats of that he cannot state his conclusion without showing that he would like nothing better than to fight anybody who differs from him.

A really great historian should bridle the disputatious tendency; he should state his opinions as emphatically as he chooses, but not

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fill his pages with answers to possible critics. It is time to defend himself after he has been attacked. Such is the method of Gibbon in his famous chapter on the early Christians. He gives the results, but not all the processes by which he reaches those results; and he knows that in the end no amount of arguing can save him unless his conclusions are correct. So we think that Freeman's chapter on the Sicilian Expedition is inferior as a narrative to the account given both by Curtius and by Grote. He has not the consecutiveness of the former nor the symmetry and sweep of the latter; and they all fall short, of course, of Thucydides in those great passages in which the Greek historian has described the night attack on Epipolæ, or the naval battle in the harbor, or the tragic retreat and overwhelming of the Athenians. Some of the most interesting portions of Freeman's work are those in which he has not to compete with either Thucydides or Grote—portions of his ninth chapter, in which he relates the second Carthaginian invasion of Sicily and the destruction of the great cities. Yet even here we find no specimen of historical narrative worthy to be placed beside Hume's account of the last days of Mary Stuart, or Gibbon's description of the capture of Constantinople, or Macaulay's picture of the siege of Londonderry, or Carlyle's living story of the Feast of Pikes. These specimens, by men very different in methods and genius, all illustrate what great and permanent historical writing should be, and wherein it differs from the writing of historical disquisitions; and when we compare Freeman with these men, we are forced to the conclusion that he is not their peer. His work is an encyclopædia of historical facts, a storehouse in which he has garnered all that is known and most that has been conjectured concerning his subject; but it has not the artistic symmetry and selection, nor the vividness, nor the narrative swing, of a great history. Scholars will prize these volumes, and long be grateful to their author for the patient fidelity he bestowed upon them; we doubt whether they will take rank as literature.

In taking leave of this colossal fragment we cannot refrain from expressing regret that Freeman's instinct for thoroughness led him to alter his original purpose, which was to write the history of Sicily during the period of the Norman invasion and the rule of the Hohenstaufens. For this task no other man of our time was so well-fitted as he. But in order to be thorough, he decided to begin at the beginning, and the consequence is that his three volumes comprise more than 2,000 pages and bring us down only to the year 405 B.C. At that rate, he would have required a dozen more volumes to reach the Guiscards and Hauteville, and two or three volumes beyond those to reach Frederick II. In view of the fact that the history of ancient Sicily is comparatively well known, while that of mediæval Sicily is scarcely known at all by English readers, Freeman would have rendered a far greater service by presenting the latter than he has done by revamping the former.

THE LATEST YEAR BOOKS.

Year Books of the Reign of King Edward the Third. Year XV. Edited and translated by Luke Owen Pike. [Rolls Series.] Printed for Her Majesty's Stationery Office by Eyre & Spottiswoode. 1891.

In the last addition to the Year Books, the volume containing the reports of cases in Easter, Trinity, and Michaelmas Terms of 1341 (15 Edw. 3), while the editor remarks in his introduction upon several matters interesting to scholars, he mentions little of special legal importance. It is probable, however, that legal specialists will reap their own harvest even here. To them everything is grist; to know for certain that a given period contributes nothing to their purpose is a boon. The editor courteously acknowledges and puts into practice a suggestion made in these columns, that the number of the cases should appear at the head of each page; it is certainly a help to the reader. Better and more scholarly editing than Mr. Pike's it would be hard to find in any department of learning. Lawyers may be proud that their matters are now so worthily treated.

In case 55 (Michaelmas) there is a discussion over the statute *De Donis*. W. Thorpe presses a certain argument. "Perhaps so," says Scharshulle, J., "for Hillary and I pleaded such a plea before Scrope in the Eyre of Northampton, because we had no other matter; and the plea was pending the whole Eyre, and then was adjourned to this Court and was pending before Herle [C. J., 1327-1337]; and he said that the strongest argument against us which he knew was that Hengham [J. and C. J., 1272-1309], who drew the statute, construed it in another way." This adds to what is found in Fitzherbert. The circumstance that Hengham drew the statute *De Donis* is interesting; it was mentioned by Hengham himself in one of the Year Books of Edward I.

At p. 84 the reporter notes that "where, by an obligation, one was bound in forty marks, the plaintiff was barred by an acquittance which purported that he received ten marks in full satisfaction of forty marks." In a full record preserved by Mr. Pike, at p. 484, one may note the persistence of legal phraseology. A certain Richard recites that so and so "per scriptum suum perdonavit, relaxavit et omnino quietumclamavit ipsi Ricardo omnimodas actiones, querelas, et demandas, quas habuit, vel aliquo modo habere potuit, per viam compoti, debiti, aut alicujus alterius contractus, ab origine mundi usque diem confectionis prædicti scripti." It is no longer the fashion to put such things in Latin, but otherwise this is probably still good form in Wall Street.

At page 446 the reporter says:

"Note that John Leukenore and Elizabeth, his wife, did homage to William Thorpe in this way: Both held their hands joined between the hands of W. Thorpe, and the husband spoke in this form: 'We do you homage and bear faith to you, for the lands which we hold of A., your cognisor, who has granted to you our services in B. and C., and the other vills, &c., against all people, saving the faith which we owe to the King and his heirs and to our other lords.' And both kissed him. And then they did fealty; and both held their hands on the book, and the husband said the words, and both kissed the book."

This is also found in Fitzherbert, to whose cases, as well as those in the Book of Assises, Mr. Pike always has the reference.

"Judgment of the writ," says Thorpe, at p. 372, "for by his count he makes the donor to be his great-great-grandfather [*tresael*], and by the writ he makes him to be cousin, whereas in the writ he ought to be called *abavus* and not *consanguineus*. Kelshulle (Justice): When one passes above the great-grandfather [*besael*], there is no other form but to call the ancestors cousins; for King John, the great-great-grandfather [*tresael*] of the present King, is in Latin called cousin."

Observe the brevity of the French equivalents for our long, linked names of the remote ancestors above referred to. The Norman French of the Year Books is a compact language. One notices that the translation of it, in a page of thirty-six lines, regularly overruns the French page from three to five lines.

The chief part of the editor's learned introduction is devoted to an investigation of the word *Merchet:* "in England the payment of *Merchet* was . . . an unfailing indication of tenure in villenage." The meaning of this term has been much discussed in connection with certain unhandsome claims of lords as regards their female serfs. Mr. Pike regards the question as not yet ripe for an answer; but he is inclined to the opinion that *Merchet* is the equivalent of *for-mariage, foris maritagium*, a fine for the marriage of a person of either sex beyond the borders of his lord's land. "The early history of villenage in England, if written," says Mr. Pike, "would constitute the greater part of the history of the people of England." The history of villenage, as the editor elsewhere remarks, has yet to be written. It is the admirable publications of the Record Office and the Selden Society, and other like associations, that ar preparing the way for such tasks as this.

Upon two cases in the Michaelmas Term Mr. Pike makes the following interesting comments:

"Should any one desire to know what was regarded as fitting sustenance for an officer of the King's wardrobe, or other person of the rank of esquire in whose support the King was interested, the details can be found. The most usual form of pension was that of a corody in a monastery, and the full particulars of a corody claimed are set forth in the record. They include a suitable apartment or chamber (*camera*) for the pensioner and stabling for two horses, six loaves of one kind and three loaves of another kind daily throughout the year, with six flagons of monastery ale and two monastery dishes of porridge. On every flesh-day there were to be two monastery dishes of meat, and on every fish-day two monastery dishes of fish, apparently for the midday meal. On every flesh-day there were to be also two monastery dishes of meat for the evening meal, dinner, or supper (*cœna*), and on every fish-day (unless the pensioner happened to be fasting) two monastery dishes of fish. Every day there were to be allowed six wax candles for the pensioner's apartment. There were also to be allowed a basket of oats daily, and twelve loads of hay yearly, for his two horses. He was to have yearly six loads of straw for his apartment and twelve loads of wood (*buscæ*) for fuel. He was also to have every year one robe of the suit of the Prior's esquires for himself, and one robe of the suit of the Prior's grooms for his groom, as well as twenty shillings for shoes and other necessaries. The Prior, it is true, denied the King's right to exact these demands; but that fact does not in any way affect the statement as to the requirements of an esquire and the illustration which it affords of the mode of life at the period.

"With the sustenance fitting for an esquire we are afforded the means of comparing the sustenance fitting for the poor. An action of *Cessavit* was brought against the Abbot of Creake in respect of certain services, among which was that of supporting five poor persons at a particular place. He had to find for each of them one loaf of the weight of fifty *solidi* every day, with porridge and ale and a dish of meat or fish or other food, according to the day, between two of them, and half a dish to the fifth. Each of them was to have also a cloth tunic suitable to his condition every other year."

The Autobiography of Isaac Williams, B.D., Fellow and Tutor of Trinity College, Oxford. Edited by his brother-in-law, the Ven. Sir George Prevost, late Archdeacon of Gloucester. Longmans, Green & Co. 1892.

Dean Church wrote, in his 'Oxford Movement,' "Isaac Williams, if any man, represented in the movement the moderate and unobtrusive way of religious teaching." Yet no one of the Tractarians was thrust into an

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uglier prominence than was he by his Tract 80, "Reserve in Communicating Religious Knowledge." As the controversy went on, this was interpreted as a plea for teaching Roman Catholic doctrines in the English Church, and Williams was punished by the loss of the Poetry Professorship in 1842. His 'Autobiography' is brief, but it is one of the most valuable contributions we have had to the history of the Tractarian Movement. Either his youth was without any promise of the seriousness of his maturity, or he delights to think so after the manner of the saints. The only passion which he names was for writing Latin verses—an injury, he confesses, to his English style. His meeting with the Kebles gave his life a turn to serious things. The influence of Thomas Keble on him seems to have been greater than John's. Under the latter's roof he made the acquaintance of Hurrell Froude, the Hotspur of the new departure. In what he writes of Froude there is the same disparity one always feels between the personal impression that he made and the arrogance and silliness displayed in his 'Remains.' In 1822 Keble was writing the poems of the 'Christian Year,' which was published in 1827. Neither Froude nor Williams cared for them. Froude opposed their publication, saying, "People will take Keble for a Methodist"—a potent sign how low religious feeling must have sunk in Anglican circles.

The most remarkable thing about Williams's book is the absence from it of all discussion or exposition of the Movement as an intellectual or spiritual thing. He has an algebraic term, "Church principles," to which he continually recurs. What those principles were he never offers to explain. As in every account of the Tractarians, we are impatient till Newman comes upon the scene; and, once arrived, he has no brother near his throne. Before Williams knew Newman he was advised to seek him out as an evangelical person and also warned against him as a liberal. Written in 1851 and revised in 1859, this little book effectually disposes in advance of Francis Newman's recent assault upon his brother as for many years a clandestine Romanist. It affords new evidence that Newman's dislike and dread of Rome were very great, while his clinging to the Anglican Church was very strong. All painful things attracted his ascetic disposition, and he might never have gone to Rome had his distaste for her been less. Williams's strangest judgment of him is that he united the "German rationalism" of Whately with the Churchism of Keble. Whately's rationalism was soundly English and not German; Pusey's beginnings had a German leaning that terrified many; Newman seems to have had no acquaintance with the German language or with German thought at first hand. The state of religion in Oxford, or of ecclesiastical observance, before the Tractarians made a difference, was never better indicated than by Williams's statement that he was "often nearly the only one in church listening to the usual hack preacher, who was reading some old sermon, *not necessarily in connection* with the Saint's day, earning his five guineas, in a manner unedifying and unprofitable to all but himself." One of the preachers was flattered by his attendance, but objected to the trouble of hunting up sermons for the day.

Williams's admiration and affection for Newman were very great, and the affection outlasted the ecclesiastical break between them, each writing to the other tenderly and each visiting the other; Newman's last visit to Williams being a few days before the latter's death in 1865. But the admiration seems to have been always qualified by some distrust. Newman's ascetic objections to the marriage of his friends troubled Williams, as did his suppression of his own domestic affections, and his tendency to daring speculations —a restlessness that nothing could abate. By far the most interesting part of Williams's book is that discussing the relation of the Tractarians to Newman and the Church of Rome. He makes out fourteen writers of the Tracts. It has been often said that it was the reaction from Evangelicalism that made Tractarians. But Newman was the only one who had been reared in Evangelical circles; what is more remarkable is that he was the only Tractarian who went to Rome. This is Williams's most interesting fact. It means that those who met Newman on any sort of equality had a saving distrust of him. None of them were carried away by the fascination which he exerted on them. The converts to Rome who preceded Newman thither and who followed him were younger men like Oakeley, Manning, Ward, and Faber. Ward's opposition to Newman was at first very strong; his conversion to his opinions was very sudden, and his advocacy of them unsatisfied with anything short of perfect logical consistency. What will please Anglicans most in this book is Newman's writing in 1863, that the English Church "upholds far more truth in England than any other form of religion would, and than the Catholic Roman Church could."

Some of the minor aspects of the book have an amusing turn. There are various incidents of the strange custom of preaching borrowed sermons: in America a fatal circumstance, in England taken for granted. Newman was responsible for the name of Williams's Tract 80, on reserve in religious teaching; and the name was the worst part of it. Williams says, "I think perhaps Newman himself made use of it to further his own secret inclinations towards the Church of Rome." Newman loses several of his divine attributes in the course of the narration, showing himself as one not without human weakness, vanity, ambition, touchiness, and pride. How the using of a little prayer-book held close to the eyes came to be a Tractarian sign that was spoken against was in this way: Thomas Keble used a little prayer-book at the daily service in order not to wear out the large parish book too fast. John Keble and Newman fell into the same custom for the same reason. All the young neophytes had to copy Newman in this respect as in others, racing through the service, for example, and writing of "Saint Charles," whom Cromwell beheaded, and "George the Good," presumably the third of that name and not "the first gentleman of Europe." Altogether there is more of disillusion in this little book than in any of its predecessors written with sympathy for the Tractarian Movement.

An Illustrated Dictionary to Xenophon's Anabasis, with groups of words etymologically related. By John Williams White and Morris H. Morgan. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1892.

It is refreshing to encounter a Greek schoolbook that is not translated or adapted from the German, and we are glad to learn that this 'Dictionary to Xenophon's Anabasis' "has been made from the 'Anabasis' itself, on the basis of an independent collection and examination of all the places where each word occurs." Another point which the editors emphasize is their "desire," in selecting English equivalents for the Greek, "to avoid that strange dialect which seems to have been devised by the Adversary for the express use of schools, and which has done much to make Greek (and Latin also) a dead language." This strange dialect is, of course due, not to the Adversary, but to the traditional use of obsolete words which have held their own in the schools after they had disappeared from the practical vocabulary of every day; and while no sensible person will object to making the English fresh and lively and to a certain extent modern—while no one will raise a finger to save "behoove"—still, it is possible to go too far. If one man uses "salaam" for "make obeisance," the next man will use "kow-tow," and justify it, too—in fact, justify it more readily than Messrs. White and Morgan can justify their rendering of δεσπότης by "Czar." As to that bugbear, the irregular verb, there is no use in quarrelling with the practice of making the vocabulary a key. But the trouble is to know when the help is to be withheld. If, unassisted by the grace of a dictionary, the beginner does not know that ἔλαβον is to be referred to λαμβάνω, by what inspiration is he to know that λαθεῖν is to be referred to λανθάνω? If ἀνέστην is put in, why is ἀνέκραγον left out? By the way, the lexicographers might have taken a hint from Autenrieth, and have printed in different characters the forms that do and those that do not occur. A Theban might be allowed to say μόλωσιν· But who ever said βλώσκω except a dictionary-maker or some late snapper-up of curiosities? This God-forsaken Theban for whom the editors apologize says (vii., 1, 33), ἔστ' ἂν μόλωσιν; but ἔστε, to a dainty Attic, is almost as bad as μόλωσιν, and yet our lexicographers, who have something to say about ἀντίος, ἐξαπίνης, and σύν, have nothing to say about ἔστε for ἕως, ἐπεί for ἐπειδή, ὡς for ὥστε and for ὅπως; and the student is allowed to consider ἀμφί as good as περί, and ἀνά as common as κατά. Perhaps, however, it is as well not to prejudice the youthful mind against Xenophon, who is in great disfavor with the purists just now, and we will not quarrel with Messrs. White and Morgan for not imitating Holden, who follows Sauppe's system of noting the various kinds of wild honey that the Attic bee has stored in a hive which should have been consecrated to the nectar of Hymettus. Our lexicographers apologize for paying so much attention to "construction" in the several articles, but sometimes the attention has not been close enough: πρίν is badly stated, and διά with accusative 'through' is actually false.

From the time of the Messieurs de Port Royal and the 'Jardin des Racines Grecques,' teachers have been hoping marvels from the aid of etymology in enabling the students to master Greek, and some of the oldest generation of Greek scholars may dimly remember a certain volume of "Greek Primitives" to be learned by heart. The results never come up to the expectation, and it would seem that Messrs. White and Morgan are too sanguine as to the practical service to be rendered by their groups of etymologies, among which there must be some individuals that will rouse the angry passions of those who consider an etymology a sacred thing. At all events, in a school-book like this, the semasiology ought to be clear, and the phonetics ought not to require an alembic. "Borrow" ought not to be put down under ἀπόφραξις, nor "hog" under ὗς, even if Skeat approves. And yet, after making all possible deductions, such as any one can make from any possible dictionary, it is but justice to say that the book is well cal-

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culated to give life and interest to the study of the 'Anabasis,' and that the long articles on the antiquities, with their many illustrations, will lighten for learner and teacher alike their employment with a classic which shares the doom of Cæsar's 'Commentaries.'

The Robin Hood of Vermont. By Henry Hall. D. Appleton & Co. 1892. Pp. 207.

THIS book cannot lack readers. The time is ripe for another work on Ethan Allen. Former biographies, as by Sparks and Hugh Moore, are three-score years old, and based on less accurate information than is now accessible. Allen's own narrative, published in 1779, always obscured by his imperfect education, more and more needs illustrating and supplementing. It ran through a dozen editions within three decades, and will never grow old while men have regard for the courage of a hero or the fortitude of a martyr. As long ago as 1866, a copy of the *editio princeps* was eagerly bought for $56. Allen has a larger hold on popular interest because of a sort of resemblance to Abraham Lincoln on the humorous or (as some would say) the Jim Crow side. Both, too, used sportive sallies for a serious purpose. The racy remarks of both will live for ages in the mouths and memories of men.

This Life of Allen is enriched to some extent from archives of which former biographers made no use, as, the Journal and expense-account of Capt. Mott and the letter of Wedderburn, which we owe to the London research of B. F. Stevens. Hence, and in other ways, certain side-lights are thrown on the four cardinal features of Allen's career. These were his taking of Ticonderoga; his captivity; his struggle for independence of New York; and his diplomatic dallying with Canada. Recognition of his noble service at each of these crises moved Green Mountaineers to set up one statue over his grave, another in the Vermont State-house, and another in the Rotunda at Washington. The last-named is of really national celebrity because few American children grow up without learning his summons, in the name of Jehovah, to the head of the garrison at "Ty." Mr. Hall's style is terse, usually clear, and he gives a more vivid picture of scenes in Allen's career by grouping around them contemporary events. Familiar facts, under his pen, assume an unexpected freshness, and a reader becomes reluctant to lay down the volume till he reaches the last chapter.

After all, it is greatly to be regretted that Mr. Hall died while in the midst of his labor of love, for his work needed much more elaboration and must be pronounced both superficial and inaccurate. Capt. Mott is shown to have been the Moltke of the expedition against Ticonderoga, but his name appears as *Nott* in four different places, and that in such a context as to suggest another man. This misprint or blunder could never have escaped Mr. Hall's eye. In fact, however, this Nott must mislead many readers almost as much as the omission of *not* in printing the seventh commandment did. In the Journal of Mott there is a misprint of "for" instead of "from," not likely to be suspected, but which renders a whole paragraph totally obscure. "From our people" is supplanted by "*for* our people," p. 64. Mr. Hall has a spirited page on Allen's "alarum" which rallied his men, but not a word as to the boats, "the be-all and the end-all," which, in Allen's words, "were procured with the utmost difficulty." Had he put his last hand to the work, Mr. Hall would have made it manifest, as Goodhue and Chittenden have done, how nearly that difficulty proved insurmountable, and how adroitly it was overcome, though not till the last minutes of the eleventh hour.

But for the capture of Ticonderoga, it is not likely that the British would have been driven out of Boston. This Mr. Hall would have demonstrated by further research. The Colonial Records of Connecticut would have shown small arms and lead, sent from there to Washington, "at his earnest request," to have been among the spoils which Allen had taken. Mr. Hall would have set before his readers the army which blockaded Boston destitute of siege guns till fifty-nine pieces were secured from the same spoils. He would have quoted Washington's words to Knox, who was sent to Ticonderoga for these cannon: "The want is so great that no trouble or expense must be spared to obtain them with the utmost despatch." He would have added that, in a week after they were in position, Boston became untenable and that spoils valued at £300,000 were taken by an outlay of £520 15s 8¾d. In many other ways, had Mr. Hall survived, we should have been taught to appreciate Allen's exploits much better than is now in our power. In various details he would have caught Bancroft and even John Fiske napping. But, in point of fact, the deficiencies in his own work cannot be numbered. Among minor ones we note a stumble on the threshold. Allen's birth-place is nowhere mentioned. This omission is the more noteworthy because it is a point on which authorities differ. Hinman and Allibone say Allen was born in Roxbury; Dr. Dwight says Salisbury; Allen's Biographical Dictionary says Woodbury; and all four are wrong. Kilbourne has found the record of Allen's birth as at Litchfield, on the town-records there. Errors as to Allen's age were corrected by Mr. Hall.

Washington, who met Allen but once, remarked in him "an original something which commands admiration." We all share that feeling, which deepens at every page we read of his own writings, and we honor Mr. Hall's endeavor to heighten and diffuse that feeling.

The Apodidæ: A Morphological Study. By Henry Meyners Bernard. [Nature Series.] Macmillan & Co. 1892. 8vo, pp. 316, illustrated.

THROUGHOUT this volume, determination to establish particular opinions is so prominent that readers can hardly avoid questioning every statement. Evidence of what may be prejudice and partiality is met with everywhere, and we lay the work aside with the feeling that it must be done again before we shall know what estimate to place on the author's personal equation, how to value his interpretations of facts, or whether his conclusions are worthy of adoption. At the outset it is stated that the purpose of the book is to prove the Apodidæ a transition form, a connecting link, between the other Crustacea and the Annelida. The statement was hardly necessary, for the purpose is sufficiently manifest. The book contains a very interesting presentation of the author's views; it would be more satisfactory if it were more convincing. It is decided that Apus is a modified annelid, and, therefore, a primitive crustacean; that Limulus and Apus have developed from the same "bent crustacean-annelid"; that the Trilobitæ had the same origin, and are nothing but specialized carnivorous annelids; that Limulus, Eurypterus, and Pterygotus are specialized forms of the early trilobites; and that the Ostracoda are derived from the trilobites, while the Cirripedia and Copepoda were from a larval, and the Phyllopoda and Malacostraca from an adult, form of Apodidæ. A deal of manipulation is required to bring the "bent annelids," the Trilobitæ, the Eurypteridæ, the Xiphosuridæ and the Apodidæ and other recent Crustacea into such close relationships, but Mr. Bernard has accomplished it, to his own satisfaction at least.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alarcón, P. A. de. The Child of the Ball. Cassell. 50 cents.
Arnold, Matthew. A French Eton. Macmillan. $1.75.
Austen, Jane. Lady Susan. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Bazán, Emilia P. The Swan of Vilamorta. Cassell. 50c.
Beljame, A. Enoch Arden. Poème traduit en prose française. Paris: Hachette.
Beljame, A. Enoch Arden. Texte anglais, avec notes grammaticales et littéraires. Paris: Hachette.
Bernard, J. H. Kant's Kritik of Judgment. Macmillan. $3.50.
Bigelow, Poultney. Paddles and Politics down the Danube. C. L. Webster & Co. 75 cents.
Bluntschli, J. K. The Theory of the State. 2d ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Brewster, H. P., and Humphrey, G. H. England and its Rulers. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. $1.50.
Buxton, Mrs. Sydney. Side Lights upon Bible History. Macmillan. $1.50.
Clarke, Clara S. The Poet's Audience, and Delilah. Cassell. $1.
Daremberg, G. Le Choléra: ses Causes, Moyens de s'en Préserver. Paris: Reuff & Cie.
Davis, Mrs. Rebecca Harding. Silhouettes of American Life. Scribners. $1.
Essays by Sainte-Beuve. London: W. Scott; New York: A. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Findlay, Rev. G. G. The Epistle to the Ephesians. [Expositor's Bible.] Armstrong. $1 50.
Garland, Hamlin. A Spoil of Office. Boston: Arena Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Giffen, Robert. The Case against Bimetallism. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Heine, H. Italian Travel Sketches. London: W. Scott; New York: A. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Hocking, Joseph. Zillah: A Romance. Ward, Lock, Bowden & Co.
Jagemann, Prof. H. C. G. von. Elements of German Syntax. Henry Holt & Co 80 cents.
James, G. F. Handbook of University Extension. No. 1. Philadelphia: University Extension Society.
Johnson, Amy. Sunshine. [Nature's Story Books.] Macmillan. $1.75.
Kennard, Mrs. Edward. Wedded to Sport. National Book Co.
Leat, W. A Companion to the Iliad for English Readers. Macmillan. $1.60.
Leland, C. G. Leather Work. London: Whittaker; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Lewis, Mrs. Harriet. Beatrix Rohan. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Macquoid, Katherine S. Berris. National Book Co.
Marryat, Florence. The Nobler Sex. Hovendon Co. $1.
Mayflower Tales. John A. Taylor & Co. 30 cents.
McCay, Miss S. C. A Modern Quixote: A Story of Southern Life. Chicago: Morrill, Higgins & Co. 50 cents.
Merrill, E. A. Electric Lighting: Specifications for the Use of Engineers and Architects. W. J. Johnston Co. $1.50.
Michel, Emile. Les Van de Velde. [Les Artistes Célèbres.] Paris: *L'Art*; New York: Macmillan.
Müller, Lucian. Greek and Roman Versification. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 75 cents.
Needell, Mrs. J. H. The Story of Philip Methuen. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Oliphant, Mrs. Diana: the History of a Great Mistake. U. S. Book Co. $1.25.
Payn, James. A Modern Dick Whittington. John A. Taylor & Co. 50 cents.
Reinach, Salomon. Antiquités du Bosphore Cimmérien. Paris: Firmin-Didot & Cie.
Riddell, Mrs. J. H. A Mad Tour. U. S. Book Co. $1.25.
Rolleston, T. W. Selections from Plato. London: W. Scott; New York: A. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Salter, W. M. First Steps in Philosophy. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co.
Sanborn, E. W. People at Pisgah. Appletons.
Schoenhof, J. The Economy of High Wages. Putnams. $1.50.
Shields, T. E. Index Omnium. Boston: Joseph Knight Co.
Strecker, Karl. Der Sang der Mönchgut. Stralsund: Bremer's Verlags- Buchhandlung.
Swank, J. M. History of the Manufacture of Iron in all Ages, etc. New ed. Philadelphia: American Iron and Steel Association. $7.50.
Tenger, Mariam. The Hungarian Girl. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
The American Yacht List for 1892. Thomas Manning. $10.

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The *Monist*. Vol. 2. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co.
The Professor, and Other Poems. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.
The Story-Teller. No. 1. Boston: W. B. Clarke & Co. $1.
Theuriet, André. A Young Man of the Period. Chicago: Laird & Lee. 50 cents.
Thomson, J. A. The Study of Animal Life. Scribners. $1.50.
Underhill, John. "The Athenian Oracle": a Selection. London: W. Scott; New York: A. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Warden, Florence. Ralph Ryder of Brent. National Book Co. $1.25.
War under Water. Cassell. 50 cents.
Whitney, H. M. The Tourist's Guide through the Hawaiian Islands. Honolulu: Hawaiian *Gazette* Co.
Williams, T. C. Principles of the Law of Real Property. 17th ed. London: Sweet & Maxwell; Boston: Boston Book Co. $5.
Wilson, J. G. Memorial History of the City of New York. Vol. II. New York History Co.

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READY THIS WEEK:

Crozier's Dictionary of Botanical Terms. By A. A. Crozier, M.S., Secretary of the American Pomological Society. 8vo, 202 pages.

This work attempts to define in alphabetical order all terms, both technical and popular, that are applied to plants, and to indicate those obsolete or obsolescent, and of several synonyms the one mos approved.

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